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Debating as an Influence in the Career of a Public Servant

By Governor Edmund S. Muskie of Maine

At the American Forensic Association Breakfast held in Boston on August 28, Governor Muskie delivered an address which charmed his listeners. Most graciously he responded to our editorial request to "write it up" for our readers. You'll enjoy both the humor and the shrewd common sense.

APPROACH MY ASSIGNMENT this morning with many doubts. In the first place, I am conscious of the professional qualifications of this audience, and question the wisdom of exposing my poor talents to your critical view. In the second place, this is a breakfast meeting — an almost impossible time of day for a man to be on guard effectively; and failure in this respect can be fatal to a politician. And thirdly, there is my subject — the influence which debating has had on my career as a public servant. As long as I am active politically, there is likely to be a sharp division of opinion among my constituents as to whether that influence has been good or bad.

Facing these doubts, I feel very much like the mosquito who found himself unexpectedly in a nudist colony. I don't know where to begin.

Whether or not debating has had an influence on my career — and I shall undertake to show that it has — I should make it clear at the outset that when I was first persuaded to try out for my high school team, I did not have the slightest premonition that it might lead to political life. I was a shy boy, determined to learn the art of self-expression to overcome that shyness. In the process I had my ups and downs.

I recall, for example, one of my first opportunities to speak to a formal audience. With hours of practice behind me, I felt confident that I was reasonably well prepared until I learned that the speaking was to be preceded by a banquet at which I was to be seated between two distinguished ladies of the community. Immediately doubts assailed me as to my ability to hold up my end of the table conversation. I hurried to my coach for advice.

He reassured me by offering some very simple advice. "First," he said, "turn to the lady on your left, ask her if she is married, and then ask her if she has any children. You will find that she will pick up the conversation from that point and you will have nothing to worry about. Then turn to the lady on your right, ask her if she is married, and then ask her if she has any children. You will find that she also will pick up her end of the conversation and you can eat your meal in peace."

As I said, this seemed like excellent advice, and I undertook to follow it. However, the following day I faced my coach with fire in my eye. It hadn't worked out at all. "Now, now," he asked, "what went wrong?"

"Well," I said, "I turned to the lady on my left and asked her if she was married. She replied that she was not. Then I asked her if she had any children, and, of course, she did not speak to me for the rest of the evening. Then shifting my tactics, I turned to the lady on my right and asked her if she had any children. She replied that she did, and then I asked her if she was married."

Actually, debating as an art seemed furthest removed from such talents as I had. I was much more adept at the sciences. I found it much easier to pursue those subjects which I could explore at my desk, in the library, or in the laboratory. I almost literally had to be forced to try out for the debating team in my Junior year in high school. Having made that beginning, I determined to become as proficient as possible. My interest grew until, in my Junior year in college, I abandoned mathematics as a major and elected history and government. The practice of the art, then, had a profound and controlling influence upon my interests and undoubtedly it changed the whole course of my life. In saying this, I am not overlooking the fact that many subsequent influences came into play before I finally embarked upon a political career.

What is there in the art of debate and its practice which exerted this influence upon me? Is it an influence which may have meaning for others?

It is man's natural state to be free, to govern himself. This we Americans believe.

I was reminded, not long ago, that the word "democracy" derives from two Greek words — "demos," meaning "people", and "kratos", meaning "authority". Here, then, in the very word we have a definition for democracy which is beautiful in its simplicity — "the authority of the people." It implies that the individual, in a democratic society, has a voice in the control of his own destiny. It implies, further, that, because his actions have an influence upon all others in society, he has a

responsibility to control it wisely. It implies that, in order to discharge this responsibility wisely, he must prepare himself by education and training to do so.

The art of debate is an important tool for that kind of self government in a free society. As it is used and practiced, it develops the ability of a people to govern themselves. At the same time, although we think and speak as individuals, the collective judgment of the whole society is, in the long run, to be trusted more than the judgment of any one man. If this is not so, then the concept of government by the authority of the people is false. It is an inescapable conclusion that these collective judgments cannot reflect wisdom, responsibility, and foresight unless they are subjected to the critical analysis and evaluation which are possible only through the process of debate.

The art must be practiced widely if its use is to achieve maximum results for us. It should be practiced, not only on the level of Lincoln and Douglas, not only on the floor of the United States Senate, not only by politicians, but also by the average citizen — over the back fence, on street corners, in town meetings, by the use of both the written and the spoken word.

It is so practiced — with varying degrees of effectiveness, of course — because it is the natural state of man to be free, to govern himself, to entertain opinions on public questions, and to undertake to convert his neighbors to his point of view. Debating, then, is possibly the most widely practiced of the arts in a free society. It is the most democratic of the arts — practiced even by my seven-month old daughter who has not yet learned to speak.

It is obvious, then, that the development of leadership in such a society has a very direct relationship to the art of debate. One becomes a leader by molding public opinion to support a given course of action, not by dictating such action. Dealing, as one must, with an ever changing, ever restless, ever shifting body of public opinion, one can hope to be successful in a career of leadership, only to the extent that one practices effectively the art of debate.

This involves the ability to pinpoint the crucial issues of the day. It requires the willingness to apply one's self to the task of research and study in order to assemble all considerations bearing upon those issues. It requires the ability to rise above emotion and prejudice when evaluating such considerations, and to apply the irresistible forces of logic to the assembled data. More than that, it requires the courage to accept the decisions thus indicated, and the ability to present the opinions thus developed in such a way as to persuade others to a like point of view.

There are risks, of course, to this kind of leadership in terms of winning elections. The right course is not always the popular course. The statesman whose stature looms high in history may not enjoy the fruits of victory which his wisdom and foresight may warrant. Even the most astute practice of the techniques of debate may not prevent his defeat. Confronted by such a prospect, and in order to insure victory, he may be tempted to use the art of debate to justify a different and more popular course. Our ultimate destiny as a free people demands that such temptation be resisted and that our best leadership be true to the standards I have suggested.

If we are to meet such standards, the lines of communication between citizen and leader must be kept open. Each draws strength from the other. Effective leadership is both the product of and the molder of public opinion. Effective citizenship depends upon the information and direction which sound leadership can provide. Debate and the other arts of expression are the necessary tools.

What has all this to do with my career in public life? It is only intended to suggest the motivations which ultimately led me into public life, motivations which lay dormant until awakened and stimulated by my training in debate. Motivations which are basic in a free society — as natural as breathing.

Your invitation to me to speak to you suggests that you may be interested in the application of what I have said to our Democratic victories in Maine in 1954 and 1956. Two Bates College debaters, Congressman Frank M. Coffin and myself, were, of course, directly involved. The training in debate which we received from Professor Brooks Quimby was invaluable in our campaign to achieve a Democratic victory in a Republican state. I suspect that Professor Quimby, with his political leanings, views this fact with mixed feelings. The results suggest that the art of debate in our society can be a great equalizer which adds strength to a minority cause and enables it to prevail, which can bring defeat to a majority which has lost touch with the people it serves.

We used the art to pinpoint problem areas which disturbed Maine citizens, particularly in the area of state issues which had been neglected by a party which took the state for granted and concentrated on national issues. We probed for the facts by hard work and research. Thoroughness was the keynote. We drove these facts home relentlessly to every citizen we could reach—on the farm, on the street corner, along Main Street, in the factory—reasoning, persuading, wherever and whenever we had the opportunity.

More important than the partisan victory was the demonstration that a dormant political situation can be stirred to life and revitalized by such means. It is a process which must be continuously at work if we are to make democracy work. The stakes are terribly and awesomely high. In no other way can we effectively meet the pressing problems of each new day here at home on the community, state, and national levels. How we solve them to advance our own welfare, the welfare of each individual citizen, will affect the decision of millions abroad who are not sure that our kind of government is right for them. This, as I see it, is the importance of the work you have been doing and are doing. You are playing a vital role in the shaping of the citizenship and the leadership of tomorrow.

"BUT DO THE DOGS LIKE IT?"

By David C. Phillips

Author of Oral Communication in Business, and Head of the Department of Speech, University of Connecticut, this is Dr. Phillips' second article for TODAY'S SPEECH.

An effective definition of communication is, "Adjusting ideas to people and people to ideas." This communication basically consists of two essentials: (1) a sharply focused idea that is sufficiently crystalized in the mind of the speaker to seek a definite response, and (2) a consideration of the listener so that the idea and/or the listener may be "adapted" in order to gain the desired response.

For an example of our meaning let us take management and the employee. Management is interested in efficient production so that it can make a product that is competitive with a satisfactory profit. Management therefore wants maximum use of time, as little damage as possible, small amounts of waste, minimum "down time" due to machinery trouble, and the like. On the other hand, studies have shown that among other things the employee is interested in job security, wages, and his own future. Unless management can "adjust" its ideas of efficiency in terms of the listener (the employee), proper listening, belief, and response may not be gained. No matter how logical or valuable the idea may be, it is useless until accepted by the listener.

More humorously, the idea may be put this way. A new dog food had been placed on the market, and a meeting of the sales personnel was taking place. To close the meeting the sales manager ascended the platform, held up a can of the new product and proudly announced, "This dog food has been given the ap-proval of the American Kennel Club." The audience was quick to applaud. The speaker raised his voice and proudly stated, "And this new product has the approval of that outstanding magazine, The Care and Feeding of Your Dog!" (Great applause.) To cap the climax, the sales manager proclaimed with great fervor, "And this dog food has been approved by the U. S. Department of Agriculture!!" The salesmen broke into tremendous acclaim. As the tumult died, a rather timid man in the rear arose and quietly asked, "But do the dogs like it?" He knew that no matter what logical reasons others had why the dog should like it, if the dogs did not eat it, sales would be low.

One of the biggest mistakes made today in communication is the feeling, usually unconscious, on the part of most people that just because they understand and

believe ideas others will also understand and believe for the same reasons. We just do not take time to consider what makes other people "tick". Until we do, our communication will be hampered. The following questions will assist a communicator in adapting his ideas to his listeners to gain a desired response.

What is the listener's knowledge of the subject? The author was called in as a consultant by an electric power company. At the first meeting attended by many executives of the company, the speaker raised the question, "Why is my light bill so high? I paid \$14.86 last month for what little use I make of your company." The power officials started to answer the question in terms of kilowatt hours and how cheap a kilowatt hour could be purchased. But I as a listener could not understand the meaning of a kilowatt hour, so the subject was still

Finally, one executive said, "Dave, how many cigarettes a day do you smoke?" I answered, "Two packages." He replied, "At the current slot machine price that is at least fifty cents a day or \$15.00 a month. \$15.00 for your cigarettes, but only \$14.86 for your light bill. Now, Dave, what's the first thing you do in the morning?" I said, "Turn on the radio." He replied, "You can run the radio all day for the cost of one cigarette. What do you do next that uses light or power?" It now became a contest. I was going to show him how expensive light and power was for so little use. I named cooking, television, washing, ironing, running of various motors, lights, etc. He told me each time how much it cost in terms of cigarettes to perform each task. I named several items I had not thought of before, but when I was through he had taken only seventeen cigarettes out of one pack! I have never complained at my light bill since.

Not long after that one of my former students asked what I was doing during the summer. When I said I was working with the power company, he declared, "Tell those blankety-blank people what I think of my light bill!" I replied, "Dan, how many packages of cigarettes do you smoke?" He has never complained since either. The power executive had put his idea in my terms. He had adapted his idea to my knowledge, and as a result he gained the proper response. Most of us have special fields of knowledge that we use every day and do not think of as specialized. This knowledge must be put in terms the listener can understand and

respond to.

This definition of rhetoric was presented by Donald Bryant. For our purposes communication means the same as rhetoric.

What is the listener's attitude toward my idea?

The author has been told by doctors for years that he was too obese and a diet would help his heart condition. In fact, diet was essential to future living. None of the advice was taken until one day a doctor realized my attitude and instead of lecturing me, asked me to return a couple of days later. As I walked into his office this time, we started to chat when a lady with two small children walked in. The doctor apologized for making two appointments at the same time and asked me to carry the two small children upstairs to a playroom. I did so with great huffing and puffing and with my heart pounding as I got to the top of the stairs. By the time I set the children down I was in bad shape. As I turned around I found the doctor had followed me, and he simply said, "That is the extra weight you carry around with you all the time. You need to lose sixty pounds," and walked away. The demonstration in my frame of mind was enough to make me diet. He had recognized that my attitude toward diet necessitated something more than a simple, factual lecture. He adapted his idea to my attitude.

What is the listener's background and experience?

In a meeting of a mill superintendent and his twelve foremen, a top executive of the plant presented the facts concerning the pay scale in that plant in comparison with competing companies. It turned out that the average hourly wage of this plant was from thirteen to nineteen cents higher than that paid by competing companies and other industries in the area. He asked that this information be imparted to the workers. At the end of the presentation one of the foremen said, "Can we hold this material off for a while. I understand we are about to announce that our company's profit was \$2,000,000 for the quarter." He recognized that you cannot talk to an employee about high wages when the company is showing what to the worker is a big profit. However, what was never brought out at the meeting was that this profit represented about one cent per dollar of sales, and that most of the products made by that particular plant were showing a loss.

The worker's background and experience was not sufficient to respond to the meaning of wage differential as it affected him. Wage differential tied to lay-offs, abandonment of the manufacture of the product he makes, possible loss of job and the like need to be discussed if effective communication is to take place in this situation.

What is the listener's attitude toward the speaker? At a union meeting a banker was making a speech

on the value of a bank investment plan for the union's retirement funds. The union members had preconceived notions about bankers, and their attitude plainly showed a lack of interest. The banker suddenly named a top labor leader who said that the bank plan was superior to any other plan yet proposed. The attitude of the meeting changed, and the questions following the presentation showed interest and tentative support. Most of the questions had been answered by the banker in his speech before he mentioned the leader's name but had not been "heard" by his listeners. The banker by his own admission had not been cognizant of the attitude toward him. An earlier reference to the union leader's support and other adaptations to listener attitude would have greatly assisted the presentation.

This matter of attitude is particularly important in industry where most employees have preconceived notions about management. This attitude, whether it be right or wrong, makes for an atmosphere often not conducive to good communication. Proper recognition of this fact and an attempt to overcoming it in each communication situation will make our speaking more effective.

What is the mood of the listener?

Most people pay little attention to the mood of the listener before they start to present an idea. In fact, in industry and elsewhere, we often approach employees at the worst possible time because of this lack of consideration. Little can be accomplished in communication unless there is a certain rapport between the speaker and the listener. When a person has just made a mistake, when he is tired, when lay-offs are threatened or have occurred, and at many other similar times, his mood is such that little communication can take place unless adaptation to the listener's mood is made.

In conclusion, a communicator, no matter what the situation, will do well to remember that "what the heart knows today, the mind will understand tomorrow." Thus, instead of barging into a speaking situation without thought about the listener, the speaker will do well to pause and consider his idea in the light of those to whom he is speaking. A consideration of the listener's attitude toward the speaker and his idea, thought concerning the knowledge, background, and experience of the audience, and a feeling for the mood of the situation are all necessary for effective communication. Remember our definition, "communication is adjusting ideas to people and people to ideas." The key word is "adjusting." Proper consideration of this term will help our communication immeasurably.

[&]quot;The maker of a sentence, like the other artist, launches out into the infinite and builds a road into Chaos and Night, and is followed by those who hear him with something of wild, creative delight."

The Power of Defensive Thinking

By Dale D. Drum

A tireless investigator of the psychology of speech, Mr. Drum (Long Beach State College, California) shrewdly analyses "why people argue back."

FACED WITH THE USUAL — and sometimes unusual day-to-day problems of persuading others to do or believe as he does, the average speaker not uncommonly finds himself asking rhetorically, "What makes it so hard to get people to do the right thing? Is the Devil against me?" And, of course, such questions are quickly brushed aside as either anthropomorphic nonsense or simply excuses for personal inadequacy.

But are they?

As a matter of fact, it is possible to show that there is a "devil" against the person attempting honest persuasion, the "devil" of the ego-defense mechanisms. It will be suggested that these near universal dynamisms are capable, among other things, of being a "selective lubricant," making persuasion easier for the dishonest, harder for the honest. The hopeless feeling honest persuaders sometimes get is not merely imagination; there is some truth in it!

Basically, the ego-defense mechanisms are psychological processes whose function is to protect the individual from emotional (and other) stresses through unrealistic, psuedo-logical activities. So, the student who blames "bad teaching" on his class failure may: (1) be quite correct, (2) be lying, or (3) be using a defense mechanism. In the first case, the teacher is really bad; in the second, he is good and the student knows it but is simply (and consciously) lying to others about the condition. However, in the third instance, the conclusion is not correct but the student is unaware of these facts he is probably incapable of blaming himself for his failure and needs a scapegoat. And this is the crucial element of defense mechanisms: they are based on unrealistic appraisals which are, in one sense at least, "lying to himself, not others."

This is not to suggest that the defense mechanisms are necessarily undesirable. On the contrary, it is generally accepted today that if man did not have these "self-deceptors" to act as "shock absorbers," he would quickly fall prey to psychological maladjustments more frequently than he does now. Those who doubt this are urged to consider case histories of "anxiety states," a severe neurosis often considered the product of prolonged (and/or severe) emotional stress unbuffered by defense mechanisms; not to mention the many psychosomatic illnesses, the same lack playing an important

role with them.

But these dynamisms are certainly not an unmixed blessing, many neuroses appearing to be partly (or largely) a matter of overuse of various of the defense mechanisms.

Consequently, one is faced with the Scylla of no mechanisms and the Charybdis of their overuse. Clearly, the Odysseusian course is to tread a careful path which balances some mechanisms against their use in overabundance. But this is the problem of psychology,

Or is it?

Consider certain important aspects of most - if not all - persuasive situations. Basically, it can be said that the persuader is aware of a problem needing attention and/or a program for meeting it, and he wishes to communicate these concepts to certain listeners. But this pattern will vary greatly, depending on how the persuader views the situation.

Let us take two hypothetical persuaders, Mr. "A" and Mr. "B". Both live in a small, rural community. Three years ago, a plant was established nearby and now it is developing the area into almost an urban environment. However, the plant spreads a complex chemical into the air which has a foul odor and may possibly injure the plants grown by the several truck

farmers nearby.

Now Mr. "A" is an honest man. Consequently, he faces the problem squarely and undertakes a long, difficult, and expensive analysis. He interviews plant officials, the truck farmers, townspeople, and even college chemists and botanists a hundred miles away. Completing this study, he feels he has a good idea of the nature of the problem. And, after further thought and some discussions with town officials, Mr. "A" develops a plan involving ten years of work, a cost of \$75,000 divided between the plant and the town, and extensive community work of an educational nature. In short, like most realistic proposals, this is long, difficult, and expensive.

Mr. "B", on the other hand, is cut from different cloth. He sees this problem as an opportunity for his personal advancement. So, without investigation, he begins his campaign. He talks to various citizens mostly older residents - and community groups to whom he emphasizes that the plant is "a blight on our fair town." He focuses on the harm the plant has done and plays on the resentments of the townsfolk. He even says he has "information" that the plant could end the odor but is too "money-grubbing" to do so. His solution? Elect him to the town council on a ticket of

"force the company to do it all," and he will do the rest, and quickly too.

From this fictional and rather oversimplified account, it is obvious these two represent the classic "good guy" and "bad guy" approach to problem-solving. The first is intelligent, careful, and accurate; the second, avaricious, stupid, and shallow.

But even more important is the question of who will win. Morally, of course, we hope Mr. "A" will emerge victorious. However, abundant historical evidence suggests that Mr. "B" has at least a strong advantage and will most likely win out.

Why should this be? After all, Mr. "B" is lying. He is unintelligent. He is in error. Surely Aristotle's dictum that, all things being equal, the morally good will win should bring victory to Mr. "A". But this is not likely for, and this is often overlooked, all things are not equal. The "devil," mentioned above, is at work. Consider how this happens.

An unpleasant odor is, after all — unpleasant. And certainly, three years of such disquietude of scent is not conducive of amicable feelings by the townspeople toward the plant. In fact, it is likely that "deep down inside," they are feeling downright nasty toward the company. Yet, they can see that the company is powerful and they are weak. In short, most of the people are apt to be "mad — but with nothing to do about it."

Now it is a basic psychological concept that, whenever one is faced with an unpleasant emotion-producing situation which, to some degree, appears unsolvable, the result is apt to be the utilization of defense mechanisms, not logic. Consequently, the townspeople most likely would have demonstrated displacement. This dynamism is the one which makes the junior bookkeeper snarl at his wife when the boss denies a raise — and then makes his wife spank the child when she is snarled at. It is the expression of emotion toward "innocents" when we cannot express it toward its legitimate object that is called displacement. So, chances are that if Mr. "B" is up on his use of defense mechanisms, he will find he can turn this "latent anger" at the company toward not only the plant but also his political opponents ("tools of the company") since this gives the voters an outlet, whereas anger at the company itself has none. And this is especially apt to be potent since Mr. "A" can only offer, "be patient ten years, spend lots of money, and maybe something will be done."

The pattern now begins to emerge. The honest persuader often finds his analysis of the problem and/or proposal difficult, complicated, expensive, and time-consuming — all factors which the average listener prefers to avoid. These are precisely the kinds of problems the mechanisms are so good at "turning off" through unrealistic thinking. After all, how much easier to dream "it won't happen here" than to work for Civilian Defense? Or to dwell on the drop in polio cases, rather than get Salk shots? In fact, it is generally easier to be defensive (in the short run, at least) than realistic. And so:

Enter the villain!

Even though the defense mechanisms are beneficial in protecting us from anxiety we cannot do anything about (such as the job-interview a week away that can't be handled until the week has passed), there is always the danger that we will use them when realistic action is possible and desirable. Then it becomes clear the mechanisms can "get in the way" and prevent realistic handling of real problems, to the detriment of ourselves and society generally.

Then it would seem that classes in persuasion, books on problem-solving, and related studies should be aimed at "keeping defense mechanisms in their place" and restricting them to their rightful activities of protection. But, since these are generally easier than realism, it should be obvious this is no small problem.

The details of how the defense mechanisms can be used for dishonest ends would take far more space than is possible here. What will be attempted will be a single "case history" which may suggest some of the ways these mechanisms are at the disposal of the demagogue.

The example to be used here will be Adolf Hitler. He is chosen, not because he necessarily exemplifies "what the well-bred demagogue will say" but since, as much as any in this century, he showed almost infinite variety of uses to which these defenses were put — and can be put today. The reader is invited to draw as many parallels as possible to the home-grown variety of dishonest persuader regrettably found here as in any other nation.

The first mechanism — not only the most common in modern (Western) society but the most dangerous to really logical thinking - which Hitler used was rationalization. This is, by definition, an excuse for actions which is plausable and logical, but not correct. (You might want that new hat because your looking well helps your husband, but it's more likely you want it because it's pretty). "All Germany's ills grow from the Versailles Treaty!" This rallying-cry of Hitler helped sweep him into power. For, after all, it was plausable. The treaty was ill-conceived; it was unfair to Germany; it was much of what Hitler said it was. And the arguments were logical - if you accepted certain assumptions. But close study of post-World War I history shows these assumptions not to be acceptable. And such analyses take time, effort, intelligence, and objectivity, and these did not certainly characterize the depression-ridden German. In short, Hitler's argument was almost right; and it was simple and easy for the German people to accept. The honest speaker arrayed against such arguments could only use complicated reasons the average person would not listen to, even if he could understand them. The Germans wanted to excuse their condition and Hitler gave them the rationalization: Versailles. Easy, convenient, vicious. How many such rationalizations today rattle the halls of Congress? The city council? Even our own homes?

Another method favored of Hitler was the already

discussed displacement. More than a decade of disastrous inflation and depression made the German people, understandably, angry. But angry at what? Until Hitler, they were frustrated. The situation was terrible but to the honest thinker, at least — there was no simple answer, no "villain" to punish. So it is likely a great many Hausfraus and Kinder suffered displaced hostility from a Papa angered at money matters. Then Hitler provided convenient objects for displacement: the Jews and the communists. They were to blame. In effect, he said, "You're angry, you want to hate. All right: hate the Jews! Hate the communists! Hate to your heart's content! !" All the years of pent-up, bitter feelings could then be released. He gave them not only a rationalization but also scapegoats to beat. And in doing this, Hitler gained many allies (one of the strongest cohesive factors in any social group is "the common enemy"). Here again was a ready-made outlet (Hitler did not invent bigotry): oversimplified, frighteningly vicious. And it was effective — just ask the five million Jews who died under Hitler! But don't overlook the same thing in the United States. How much displacement, for instance, works in the lynching of a Negro - or bayonets keeping "dangerous" 9-year-old Negroes out of public schools? Or in the cries of "Kill 'em!" at a boxing match? Or the fight you had with your wife yesterday?

Fantasy was also used by Hitler. This — nothing more than daydreaming — was a partial basis for his promises of the future, his glowing accounts of "the master race" and the wonders of the world to come. The beauty of this dream effectively shielded objective analysis of the operations of National Socialism from the Germans' minds. It is easy to ignore the evil elements in a system, once rosy-glasses dreaming begins to take over one's thinking. Consider, for instance, the fantasy elements of the present-day communist "ideal" and the actuality of the Soviet government. And consider the times fantasy has endangered vigorous, realistic action on our own part. Such as pre-Pearl Harbor? Or pre-Korea? Or today's pre-???

The mechanism of *projection* was also used by Hitler. Here, one "projects" or attributes to others the feelings, motives, and actions which he himself is feeling but does not wish to admit. The "aggression" against which Hitler fought in Poland, for instance, is such a case (if one assumes it was not simply a lie — which it probably was). One wonders how many Germans really wanted to dominate the world, to fight, to aggress but could not accept such an idea, so accepted Hitler's "line" making Germany victim rather than aggressor, as she really was. To bring this closer to home, how much "hatred" of the Japanese (so quickly ended on V-J day) was a matter of our unacceptable desires (hatred and destruction) projected on the enemy?

The last mechanism considered here — though it by no means exhausts the list — is that of identification.

This is the one which seemed to many to most characterize Hitler's regime. In it, the individual compensated for his own shortcomings by vicariously "succeeding" through identifying himself with a more successful person — in this case Hitler. Der Fürer became the symbol of all the German people desired to be but could not become individually. As "the hero," his successes brought "glory" to countless who could not achieve it on their own. And how many men of modern times set themselves up as such "heroes": Huey Long, Joseph McCarthy, Senator Eastland? How much of their success — and that of many others — was due to identification?

All of this is not to suggest each use of defense mechanisms by a speaker should automatically brand him as dishonest. On the contrary, it is quite possible to use these to good effect. There was as much identification by the British to Churchill as the Germans to Hitler, as much fantasy in Wilson's League as Khrushchev's Soviet, etc. But that defensive thinking can be used to good ends should not blind us to the fact that there is power in defensive thinking and this power is often the main force behind the demagogue.

Utilizing the rationalization that "right will out in the end" and denial through the fantasy that "man is inherently good and will recognize evil for what it is"— this can blind us to the real problems— and dangers— in modern persuasion. If people do by-and-large prefer defensive thinking to realistic analysis, then this is a major problem; and if we do not face it squarely, we will be in grave danger of allowing the demagogues of this and other nations to utilize the techniques of modern communication to increase the power of such defensive thinking— and in such an eventuality, we are apt to find our hard-won democratic principles smashed into a ruin that will overshadow even the fall of Rome.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN

by LEAH SHERMAN

Attention Please, a word or two should now be said
On why the evening sky turns red;
On why the trees stand, pencil dark,
Or what to do with singing lark.

Important matters such as these Must not be tossed aside with ease But judge them carefully and well To keep the future race from hell.

The Attorney-Client Interview

By George P. Rice, Jr. and Robert H. Staton

Dr. Rice is professor of speech in Butler University. His LAW FOR THE PUBLIC SPEAKER will be published this spring. Mr. Staton and he are associated in the practice of law in Indianapolis.

"A faculty of wise investigation is half a knowledge."
—Francis Bacon

HEN AN ATTORNEY hangs out his shingle to announce that he is ready for business, his stock in trade consists primarily of two commodities — knowledge of the law and how to research it and his time. Neither will produce reputation nor income unless an effective procedure is followed for the conduct of the initial interview with the client with a careful eye to its consequences. Knowledge of a good method of operation for this purpose will bring valuable dividends — to new members of the Bar, to law students, to pre-law students, and to coaches and debaters, especially those interested in cross-examination style of argumentation.

One begins by assuming that the attorney has the intelligence, taste, and means to surround himself with the necessary tools of his profession as well as desirable decor. His bookshelves will hold impressive sets of Reports, form books, and the statutes. Office furniture, including reception room, suggests a happy combination of prosperity and efficiency. Degrees and licenses depend from his walls. Thus prepared, he is ready to emulate Sherlock Holmes by leaning forward with steepled fingers to request of the client, "State your case, please."

Announcement over the intercom that a client is waiting begins a series of acts which will culminate either in a successful interview and a new client, potentially the source of invaluable advertising — or a disappointing failure, a possible enemy, and perhaps a suit for malpractice. Obedience to certain practical suggestions will tend to insure the first and avoid the second.

Some preliminaries come to mind at once. The lawyer should be well groomed, literate in his use of oral English, and quietly confident with the reserve which marks the professional. Before him are paper, a pencil, a printed or mimeographed "Case Report Sheet" to record facts, and his engraved professional card for the client at the end of the talk. The "Case Report Sheet" will list certain indispensable data: whether the client is new or old; the nature of his case in terms of an appropriate legal concept; by whom the client was referred; the name of the client; whether he is plaintiff or defendant or one of several in either category; his address and telephone number; his city and state; his business and the name of his employer; the person to

contact in the event the client becomes unavailable for any reason; the title of the case; the name, address, and telephone number of the adverse party; the latter's home and business telephones; the name of the opposing attorney, if known at this time; and the client's income. Quick possession of these data will avoid errors in filing, delay, mistakes, and the consequences of forgetfulness.

11

People will usually seek legal advice or representation in property transactions or because they are in trouble or anticipate it in civil or criminal actions. They want, above all else, to talk to sympathetic and patient listeners. Hence, as the client before him begins to unburden himself, the attorney prepares to listen carefully without interruptions. He also takes inventory of externals, such as dress, sex, age, demeanor, speech, apparent state of mind, and education. Although the client should be encouraged to talk freely, the lawyer remembers that time is passing, that he will not earn a fee for the initial interview, and that at the proper time he must take charge. Some basic considerations requiring decision soon begin to manifest themselves as relevant assertions are made. Is there a legal problem involved? It is possible that the situation requires an accountant or a psychiatrist, rather than a lawyer. Perhaps the person before him is one of the several "crack-pots" who enter lawyers' offices every year. If there is a legal problem, the counsellor takes his notes, quickly and accurately, conscious that facts are at this point of the utmost importance. He is now confronted with such questions as these: How shall the problem be classified? Is it a civil or a criminal case? Does it present elements of both? Is the client under investigation by federal, state, or municipal administrative agencies? Is he competent to handle it? Does he want to accept it? How will acceptance affect his multiple obligations to the client, himself, his profession, and his community?

At the same time as this mental process moves along, further inferences concerning the personality of the client may be gleaned. Is he cautious or fearless? Is he partisan or fair-minded? Is he stupid or intelligent? Are the rate of his delivery and the quickness of his response such that objections an attorney would interpose during cross-examination in a trial can be timely made? The probable impression the client will make upon a jury should also be gauged, e. g., his apparent honesty, his appearance, his memory, his articulation,

his volume of voice, the direction of his glance, and even the quality of his voice.

Some idea of the method by which the case will ultimately be disposed of should also be had quite early, whether by advice, an out-of-court settlement, or by

litigation and trial.

The method of recordation of the interview will vary. The client himself may be asked to write out an account of the problem, or the attorney may rely upon his own notes, or the entire interview may be recorded on tape or wire. Since the corollary of testimony is evidence, a check must be made to see if papers will be needed, such as deeds, wills, contracts, letters, judgments, and the like. Has the client brought them? If so, the attorney should take custody. If they are not immediately available, their location must be learned.

By now the counsellor has a fair idea of the problem and what it entails. He has listened to a good deal that is irrelevant, ambiguous, or repetitious. The time has come for him to take charge, to check for ambiguities or mis-statements, and to ascertain, if he can, the reliability of what the net has enveloped. His patience is begot of Quintilian's advice to Roman lawyers to "listen to much that is superfluous in order not to miss what may be vital or useful." And as he begins to form his own questions, he remembers the wisdom of Aristotle and seeks to justify the confidence of the client before him by display of good will, practical wisdom, and reputation. His own probings will be controlled by search for answers to questions such as these:

What information has he so far secured?

What data must be obtained next, from either

the client or another source?

3. What are these additional sources, e. g., a second interview, witnesses, public records, private records, physical objects, a view of the scene, police records, newspaper clippings, and expert testimony?

When did the difficulty first take on a legal aspect and how soon was the client aware of either rights or duties? (Here Dewey's steps in reflective thinking may be employed with profit.)

What immediate acts or omissions made the

issue crucial?

What does the client want done, and how do his wishes accord with the probable remedies the law permits?

If the case goes on trial, what kinds and numbers of witness, common and expert, will be needed, and will they be hostile or friendly?

Are they readily reached by subpoena?

Is there a statute of limitations whose relevance may bar the remedy unless speedy action follows?

Where is the location of physical objects which must be inspected?

11. What probable costs will be involved, and how will the total expense be affected by factors of time, distance, and the like?

12. If the attorney has decided to take the case, how shall his fee be set, e. g., retainer, contingency basis, or hourly fee for research in office and courtroom time, or some combination of these?

13. Should a trust fund be set up for receipts and expenditures connected with the case?

Several repetitions of the client's story, aided by his own incisive questions, have now given the attorney a body of material which even at this early stage should be screened to determine its use in a courtroom where he will begin the delicate task of translating the case from his brief to the minds of the jury. Notations in the margins of pre-trial memoranda may touch on these

What matters can be gotten into the record by 1.

judicial notice?

Who has the burden of proof and what will be entailed to present or rebut it?

What evidentiary problems will be met in court with individual items of testimony and evidence?

4. Will hearsay evidence introduce special difficulties?

Will the legal concept of res gestae find employment in the action?

The data secured must be readily available for pretrial and courtroom use. It must be arranged so as to be supplemented easily, not only by him who made the initial investigation of the case, but by other members of the firm who may work on it from time to time and add to the portfolio. A good device to this end is a large manila envelope capable of holding five or six folders in order to subdivide the contents. These may be labelled: "correspondence," "legal and factual memoranda," "affidavits and legal process," "depositions," "clippings," and should be topped by a Client's Time Report Sheet which preserves in detail entries of uses of the file - dates, amounts of time, costs, interviews, and subject matter handled from time of acceptance until the case is disposed of.

This bibliography is suggestive:

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One Man's Opinion

October 8, 1957

Sir:

There was published in the September 1957 issue of TODAY'S SPEECH (Vol. 5, No. 3, p. 6) an item entitled "An Open Letter to Ogden Nash" by a Miss Carol Jungman, which reported, according to an editorial note, that "books on communication . . . are sometimes singularly uncommunicative." Actually, the piece reported its author's inability (rather than, as she claimed, the inability of "most people") to make as much sense of Charles Morris' Signs, Language and Behavior as she does of "the native tongue of Cugat — Xavier."

I forgo the pleasure of tearing the selection apart line from line only because I feel sure that any judicious reader of TODAY'S SPEECH would find that exercise repetitious. But I do wish to register a serious protest against the publication in the pages of TODAY'S SPEECH of such a frivolously jejune appraisal of a serious, sober, and scholarly work which is, if anything, coming to be respected ever more and more as time goes on.

It seems to me that it is not to the credit of any journal, however it considers its relation to a professional readership, to spoof the recognized efforts of a reputable scholar entirely without warrant or justification — and badly at that.

I am sure that I am not alone in my disappointment at finding such a piece in the journal of the Speech Association of the Eastern States.

> Very truly yours, JOHN B. NEWMAN Assistant Professor Department of Speech Queens College, Flushing 67, N. Y.

Editor: In Green Pastures, even God is discussed humorously.

From Professor William D. Sample, Head of the Radio and Television Department of St. Lawrence University: "Received the copies of September's TODAY'S SPEECH today and every one around the office is neglecting his or her work in order to read the latest issue." Mr. Sample enclosed a check for several new subscriptions, then added: "Incidentally, I've forgotten

when my subscription expires and I don't want to miss a single issue; so if it is about time to run out please review my order and bill me. Our library will also soon be ordering TODAY'S SPEECH." Letters of this kind spread a pleasant glow about the office!

"TODAY'S SPEECH arrived today and provided my commuter's reading," writes Evelyn Konigsberg, from New York City. "Congratulations! It continues to improve. How do you get the articles? They are so good." We're always eager to hear from new writers. Even those who never have published an article often have at least one good one in their systems! Why not read what we have in this issue and then start chewing the end of your own pencil? (By the way, Miss Konigsberg's article on "The Fallacy of the First Name," which we carried in January, '57, has now been reprinted by two other journals.)

While on this topic of how we get our articles, you may be interested in peering into the mind of a writer at work — in this case Francis E. X. Dance, who is referring to the article which appears on page 24 of this issue: "As I worked on the material I realized that I could write twelve thousand words if I wanted to cover all the techniques a specialized speaker could use to make his materials palatable for a general audience. However, I remembered your many exhortations for short articles — soooo I tried to concentrate my verbiage around my own idea."

Another of our writers, George Rice (who also is represented in this January issue) became so interested in the "legal aspects of public speaking" — the general subject of his several articles for us — that he has expanded his approach and is bringing out a book on the problems of speech as encountered by lawyers. Good luck, George!

One reader wants to know what happened to the department we used to run on, "My Toughest Speech Problem — and How I Licked It!" What happened is that material of this sort stopped coming in. Maybe our readers-who-are-also-speakers no longer have any problems! Maybe they've forgotten the kind of problems they used to have. Maybe they are now expanding their experiences into full-length articles — as Burnight's stimulating one on stage fright in the last issue. How do you, our readers, feel about it? Would you like to have this department revived? If so, how about sending in such accounts (preferably in 150 words or less)?

(Continued on Page 19)

DON'T BE AFRAID OF SILENCE*

By Dominick A. Barbara, M.D.

The author, a practicing psychiatrist in New York City, has written two books on Speech and several articles which have appeared in our earlier issues.

"There are times when talk is hurtful and when silence is the beginning of wisdom. Do you know when?"

-Jonathan Swift: Gulliver's Travels

The urge to talk for talk's sake is a compulsion all of us are familiar with. As a means of establishing contact with those about us, we are given to expressing ourselves to our fellow men in pronouncements and discussions about anything and everything. This method of coming together through words — our daily conversations, small talk, gossip and so on — has given us an important medium of social communication with which to break through barriers of strangeness and establish ourselves as participants on a level of more intimate relationships.

The "togetherness" of our meeting and the *desire* to talk therefore become the primary factors in social conversation; the content of the subject matter is secondary.

The compulsive urge to talk, to make a statement or remark, whether it be foreign to us or has been experienced, is a major source of the superficiality and emptiness of much of our verbal communication today. We are too ready to take and accept passively what we hear from others and to regard what we accept as truth without first giving it full expression and experience within ourselves. Walter Lippmann once said, "For the most part we do not first see, and then define; we define first and then see." The encouragement and use of silence within ourselves will help greatly in lessening this unnecessary communicative evil and will lead to more productive and meaningful ways of expression. The Book of Job (ii:13) gives us a most vivid description of men in silent and deeply reflective communication:

"So they lay down with him upon the ground seven days and seven nights and none spoke a word unto him: for they saw that his grief was very great."

This productive or reflective silence is a quality which all of us should encourage and develop within ourselves. In her book, Gift from the Sea, Anne Morrow Lindbergh has in simple, poetic Language set forth her definition of that inner peace and serenity which obtains when we have learned to enter into such a state of inner communion within ourselves. She writes:

However there are situations where silence makes for disturbed interpersonal relationships. The everyday necessity for working with others, the perpetual contacts with strangers and the accentuation of group life has made verbal communication an essential factor in our lives. To maintain a silence in the presence of others may well lead to tension and unfriendly regard, since an unwillingness to talk is often interpreted as an attitude of unfriendliness. It is often the exchange of ideas by means of a "breaking of a silence and a communion of words" that establishes profitable relationships. As an illustration of this point we have our clubs, reunions, tea and coffee breaks in which the participants are joined as a unit chiefly through the exchange of words: 'phatic communion" to use an expression coined many years ago by Bronislaw Malinowski.

In our society we find those who, because of inner conflicts and anxieties, are unable to present sufficient purpose or the feeling of aliveness to their way of life. They are pervaded with a paucity of inner experiences restricted both to their emotional life - their consciousness of pain, joy, hope, disappointment - and to those areas which include thinking, willing, wishing, believing, doing. As Karen Horney has explained it, it is as if a person had "turned his back on his inner life; as if it was all covered by fog; as if he had closed an airtight or soundproof door; as if he had walled off everything. It may be a glass wall through which he still can observe what is going on without experiencing it. The fog is usually not equally thick; it may lift at times and at others become impenetrable. Then feelings of unreality may result. All of a sudden some hurt, some loss, some work of art may penetrate and elicit a response. Some areas may be relatively free, like a relation to nature or music.

One important reason why many of us today live in a superficial manner, I feel, is the *fear of becoming* silent with ourselves and listening to the "truth of the

[&]quot;Here on this island I have space. . . . Here there is time; time to be quiet; time to work without pressure; time to think; time to watch the heron. . . . Time to look at the stars or study a shell; time to see friends; to gossip, to laugh, to talk. Time, even, not to talk. . . . Here on this island I find I can sit with a friend without talking, sharing the day's last sliver of pale green light on the horizon, or the whorls in a small white shell, or the dark scar left in a dazzling night sky by a shooting star. The communication becomes communion and one is nourished as one never is by words."

^{*} Condensed in part from his book, Your Speech Reveals Your Personality, published by Charles C. Thomas, December, 1957.

matter." This fear of deep recognition comes about mainly when we attempt to avoid facing the truth about ourselves, so as to distort the realization of our actual limitations as well as our real potentialities. Since many of the neurotic's energies are directed toward maintaining an illusory grandiosity of himself, any glimpse into his actual self becomes a disillusionment and results in further conflict and chaos.

On the other hand, by becoming silent and looking actively within ourselves and by seeking constructively for the truth about ourselves and the world we live in, we shall arrive at a realistic, dynamic and complete awareness of what is and so shall come into a truthful and healthy pattern of existence.

In the process of becoming both healthy and inwardly introspective, we must, of necessity, meet with and experience struggle and conflict, both an inevitable part of living. The desire to be free from conflict, to search blindly and compulsively for utter peace, tranquility and serenity, ultimately leads to further conflicting tendencies, living in imagination, alienation and a consciousness of futility, hopelessness and doom. The experience of and the ability to live with everyday struggles and inner conflicts, and to accept misery, pain and suffering as an integral part of living is a true and healthy way of life. The avoidance of the unpleasant and realistic warring aspects of our daily living by means of neurotic solutions, blind spots, rationalization and the use of confusion creates further self-destruction and wasteful living.

In this process of self-realization and healthy self-awareness, one must have the capacity and desire to examine critically, to understand and to reshape values, attitudes and relationships to oneself and to others. In so doing we must learn to listen patiently to ourselves and to others to our fullest capacity, without prejudice, condemnation or preconceived judgments, so that we may perceive the real truth of the matter as it is and not as we feel it should be.

Silence and productive listening are also valuable adjuncts in psychotherapy. In other words, the therapist who hopes to understand the language of the unconscious and the imperceptible must sharpen his sensitiveness to it and increase his readiness to receive it. In decoding, he must be silent at times and not only listen to what is said but to the subtle impressions it makes upon him and the fleeting thoughts and feelings it arouses in him. He must also be attentive and alert enough to search for whatever hidden meanings or messages his patient may be wanting to convey, their effect on his own being, and finally their relation to himself and to the world about him. In short, the most productive way of penetrating into the secret mind of his patient is by listening holistically, understanding his own reactions to it, and finally stimulating in the speaker a vital interest and curiosity in his own verbaliza-

In the struggle toward self-realization, many of us at times either refuse or do not know how to be silent or how to listen effectively. In seeking to understand the communications of one's own conscience, one may be able to listen to one's self. So many of us *listen by intension* — *i.e.*, listen to other voices, opinions, rationalizations — rather than to our own. This sort of passive and dependent form of listening is greatly reinforced today through mass media of communication.

Listening to one's self is difficult because of man's increasing aversion to being alone with himself. Most people think of a quiet evening at home by themselves or an hour or so set apart for quiet reflection as something to be avoided at all cost, at best a waste of time and an admission of weakness. In some, the fear of being alone and silent is so intense that they prefer the most meaningless activities — living on the periphery of their personalities, or engaging in some activity or being with someone they dislike intensely — to being alone with themselves. As long as we continue to fear facing ourselves and run away, we shall miss the opportunity for listening to ourselves and shall therefore continue to ignore our real selves. In the words of Lao-tzu, the ancient philosopher:

"There is no need to run outside
For better seeing,
Nor to peer from a window. Rather abide
At the center of your being;
For the more you leave it, the less you learn.
Search your heart and see
If he is wise who takes each turn:
The way to do is to be."

Listening to one's inner self is also difficult because the voice most times is distant, feeble and indistinct. We tend to move away from our real selves, concomitantly becoming alienated and retreating into our imaginations where we seek protection against the onslaught of anxiety and psychic disintegration. In doing so, we block and inhibit many of the true messages and communications which seek to emerge from within ourselves. Conversely, the process interferes to a large extent with the transmission of such utterances as are relayed to us from others and from the world about us. We thus find it rather difficult to listen and feel our own real thoughts, beliefs or convictions. Instead we often find the distorted and indirect expressions of our state of being verbalized in anxieties, bodily symptoms, vague and unspecified guilt feelings and a general tiredness or restlessness. In short, conflicting thoughts and ideas of a strong and painful nature which should be felt consciously are silenced by superficial rationalizations and so find their expression in the form of fears, anxieties and mental sickness.

I would like to conclude at this point with the following vivid description of silence as experienced and written by a patient of mine:

It is quiet, it is silent and the silence beats its own persistent tempo. It is a silence that mingles with aloneness but not loneliness. For to think, to feel, to sense, to love and to desire is to live often more fully than in a jungle of sound. There are no limits, no limitations — there is no

void but space which is filled with a thousand tongues of wordless thought. It is a silence that cannot be created. It is sometimes come upon as a descending, invisible circle that encloses but does not stifle. It is the imperceptible merging of the self with all infinity — the losing of one's identity but the becoming of one with all. The single call of the being becomes all cells of all things. It is a state that stops time and touches

all of space. It is the heightening of the senses that is beyond reason and awareness. This kind of silence is rare, for the balance between being and non-being is so perfect that it cannot endure by the standards of known time-span. And so this irreducible perfection is the rarest of all gifts. To grasp it and be one with it is an experience never to be lost.

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION IN THE SMALL COLLEGE

By Lionel Crocker

Helpful advice for young (and old) teachers from a veteran writer, teacher, and former President of the Speech Association of America. Dr. Crocker, Ph.D., Michigan, is Head of the Department of Speech, Denison University.

ONE IS JUSTIFIED IN CONSIDERING this matter when it is realized that the three criteria by which a prospect for a position is usually evaluated are: (1) Teaching ability, (2) Degrees, (3) Research and publication. Also, promotion from one rank to another usually hinges upon these three criteria, as anyone knows who has been a member of executive committees.

Three questions arise which I should like to try to answer with the assistance of several correspondents from small colleges: (1) Is the atmosphere of the small college conducive to research and publication? (2) If not, what compensations are there for the teacher in the small college justified in neglecting research and publication?

First, is the atmosphere of the small college, and by small college I mean such institutions as Albion, Carleton, DePauw, Denison, Lake Forest, Oberlin, Occidental, Pasadena, Redlands, Rockford, and Wabash, for it is from these that I have gathered my data, conducive to research and publication? By atmosphere, I refer to the attitude of the administration, the class load, the committee work, the encouragement of one's colleagues.

By and large, my colleagues, in the institutions just mentioned, report that the emphasis in the small college does not favor research and publication, although there are a few exceptions. Oberlin, for example, encourages publication by giving its faculty every seventh year off with one half pay for a full year, or a semester off with full pay. Denison has a similar plan of sabbatical leave. Robert Gunderson thinks this plan stimulates research and publication. "This is a very generous program and the college should get credit for

thus stimulating my research. Oberlin also prints a bibliography of its faculty publications each November. This, too, keeps one treading hard in the academic mill. In short, the atmosphere here (to change the image) is such as to encourage scholarly activity." At Occidental College, Charles F. Lindsley reports, "In our case the President's annual report carries a detailed listing of faculty publications. Thus, something of a balance between teaching and research is expected, but the latter is outweighed by the former."

Judging from the reports I received from the institutions queried, I would conclude that Dr. Lindsley's observation is generally true for the small college. In other words, the administration would rather have its faculty spend the afternoons in conference with the students than with the books in the library.

Carroll P. Lahman, of Pasadena College, who has spent most of his academic life in the small college, does not feel that the atmosphere of the small college is conducive to publication and research. Dr. Lahman's publications came out of his graduate years. His widely used book on *Debate Coaching* is an adaptation of a master's thesis, and his study of Robert M. LaFollette in *A History and Criticism of American Public Address* is a rewrite of the doctoral dissertation. Of the difficulty in finding time to write in the small college, Dr. Lahman says:

My chief problem, as with doubtless most other teachers with classroom and extra-curricular duties, was that of finding time to write. Isn't this failure to free faculty members from at least some of their regular load an important reason why more writing is not done by instructors at the smaller institutions? Of course, I do not forget the budget problem.

One reads between the lines of Dr. Lahman's letter and thinks of the heavy demands of a debate program and a play production schedule on an instructor's time. A teacher in a small college can not relegate the leg work in these activities to a graduate student.

Mildred Berry, of Rockford College, concurs in the conclusion that the atmosphere of the small college does not encourage research and publication and cites as reasons the heavy committee work, demands of the community, and the lack of inter-departmental stimulation.

I have often talked to faculty members in other small colleges, and I find that they, too, must serve on many committees, that they must do a great deal in the community, and they have virtually no time for research. Furthermore, most people need the encouragement of colleagues in the same field if they are to pursue research. Our departments are so small that we do not have the opportunity to get help on educational problems in our particular field.

In addition to these reasons, Joseph Baccus of Redlands University would add inadequate salaries. Teachers must take on outside work to supplement their salaries and this discourages research and publication. He explains:

Salary scales are definitely lower. This often forces the professor to supplement his income in what time and energy he may have left over from teaching. This frequently takes the form of filling a nearby pulpit, tutoring, lecturing, teaching night classes. Writing that is done is turned out with an eye on a definite market with so much per word in mind. Each summer, every summer he can, he teaches summer school one session, certainly; two, if he can wangle it. This is generally true, although some professors marry rich widows.

Norman Freestone of Occidental College agrees with his fellow Californian and points out that by his outside activities he is able to earn as much or more than professors at state institutions. He finds his outside work enjoyable in that it helps him to feel that he is a part of the community.

Robert F. Martin of Lake Forest College agrees with these colleagues on the prevailing discouraging atmosphere of the small college relative to getting one's name in print. In addition to the reasons already stated by other teachers in small colleges, Mr. Martin adds these:

(1) The smaller the college the smaller the library.

(2) The small college does not encourage the teacher to manipulate groups of students for research on public speaking problems.

(3) There are no graduate students to assist the researcher in various important ways.

(4) The teaching load of the teacher in various areas of Speech prevent him from becoming a specialist.

If the teacher in the small college is denied this form of self expression, what are some of the compensating factors?

Several of my correspondents agree that one of the privileges of the teacher in the small college is that he becomes a valuable member of the community, both college and town. Not least of these privileges is the opportunity for friendship with teachers in other collegiate departments. Thus he rubs shoulders with teachers in economics, history, English, philosophy, physics, chemistry and the other departments. In the quotation by Mildred Berry, it was pointed out that the teacher in the small college lacks stimulation of his immediate colleagues. However, intellectual fraternization with members of other departments helps to make a more well rounded teacher. Norman Freestone is enthusiastic about what the small college position means to him in terms of community, not only in the college but in the town. He says:

Teaching in a small college gives me a feeling of belonging to (1) our school unity and (2) our community. The latter is extremely important to me. In short we feel "settled." We like our job; we like our community. We feel a part of its activities. Our children are being raised satisfactorily, and we feel that life is pretty darn good; these factors stand out because we feel we belong. This, of course, can happen in a large university — but is not so likely to happen.

One of the teachers in a small college in reflecting upon the advantage of living in a small college community and also becoming a part of its civic life makes this criticism of the teacher in the large university:

I have been disturbed by the university Speech teachers. Their activities are so limited and their teaching so highly specialized that they have suffered as individuals. They know very little about the business of living in a community and about the great issues of the world. It is necessary for the person in the small college to be liberally educated and to be vitally interested in many fields if he is to serve his college well.

The small college situation, my colleagues agree, demands that the teacher be a generalist rather than a specialist. In this epoch when we are stressing general education, a la the Harvard report, the Speech teacher fits in beautifully with its aims and ideals. The teaching schedule of the Speech teacher in the typical small college demands a width, if not depth, of knowledge.

Take my own case as an example. I have a section on Oral Reading. We have just finished a two week session on Shakespeare. Thus, my interest in his plays is revived. I have a class in Business and Professional Speaking. This bids me attend conferences on communication in business. I enjoy meeting business people and profit by their discussion. My interest in economics, in medicine, in law is stimulated. I have a section in Great Speakers. All the reading I can do in the history of oratory comes in handy. New books by Houston Peterson, Marie Hochmuth, A. Craig Baird find a place on my shelves. I have a class in Rhetorical Theory. To study Aristotle again vivifies all my teaching. This interest prompts me to buy Wilbur Samuel Howell's Logic and Rhetoric in England, 1500-1700, Donald Lemen Clark's Rhetoric in Greco-Roman Education, and other books of this nature. I have a class in the Teaching of Speech. Going over this material makes me critical of my own teaching.

May I say that I would not trade my varied teaching schedule for a program of all Oral Interpretation, or all Business and Professional Speaking, or all anything else. One might say that I occupy a settee rather than a chair, but I find it very comfortable to have so much room. As in the field of medicine, we educators are beginning to realize again that the general practitioner

is important to the functioning of society.

How can such a program result in research and publication? Well, to discover that Walt Whitman was a public speaker invites one to sit down and pursue the theme. To discover the influence of Robert Green Ingersoll on such speakers as Eugene Debs, Albert J. Beveridge and Clarence Darrow provides material for a paper. To realize that the speeches of Henry Ward Beecher in England have never been adequately studied prompts a visit to the British Isles on a sabbatical. I agree most wholeheartedly with Herold Ross of DePauw University when he wrote, "How can the teacher expect his students to do what he himself does not do?" How stimulating it is now and then for the student to be handed reprints of articles his professor has published. Let me quote Professor Ross:

It is difficult to understand how a professor can stimulate research or the inquisitive mind without having some inquisitiveness himself. In other words, it is doubtful whether a teacher can inspire students to do something in which he has no interest or aptitude. If a teacher is to produce scholars he must, himself, be a scholar with scholarly habits and a scholarly mind.

So far we have tried to report on two points that are evident in the correspondence with colleagues in the small colleges throughout the nation. The majority opinion is, first, that the small college is not conducive to research and publication, and, second, that the small college provides, as compensation, the opportunity for the teacher to develop into a well-rounded individual in a friendly community, both town and gown.

However, to accept these two conclusions as final in one's philosophy of working in the small college gives needless hostages to fortune. I want to make the assertion, contrary though it be to the prevailing opinion, that the teacher in the small college not only can but should engage in research and publication in spite of all the seeming handicaps of his position. Really, is the teacher in the small college fair to himself and his family in neglecting, for any reason, publication and research?

One undercuts one's professional standing by neglecting a recognized yardstick in measuring one's worth as a teacher. While it is good to identify oneself wholly

and without reservation with one institution, and I can testify that this is spiritually satisfying, it is just as well to have a marketable value which is recognized beyond the confines of one's own particular campus. Although in the small college it does not seem to be so compelling that one "publish or perish," one should protect his competitive standing in his profession. Let's be hard headed. Administrations change. But one's professional equipment should be able to stand the scrutiny of any administration, or, one adds, a faculty committee. It just is not common sense in our competitive educational world to throw oneself upon the mercy of a committee or an administrator.

In conclusion, I should like to say that the advice of one of my professors at the University of Michigan, Fred Newton Scott, Head of the Department of Rhetoric, has been a guide for me. He told us graduate students, who were looking forward to a career in teaching, not to teach in summer schools if we could avoid it, that we should use the summers for writing, study, and travel. The small residential college, more often than not, does not have a summer school, which is a blessing in disguise, although it may not seem that way when the bills pile up during the summer. What I have been saying is also found in a letter from William Norwood Brigance of Wabash College:

As to outlook, I don't think there is any real difference between the problems of research and publication in small colleges and large institutions. I know the following minor differences exist: Most small colleges have smaller scientific libraries, but larger libraries on early England-American works on rhetoric and public address. (Reason: the small colleges a century ago were "run by oratory," and every book on the subject found a place on its shelves.) Faculty members in small colleges may have less time for research during the year, but more time in summers — since most of them are freed from the chance and temptation to teach in summer school.

Teachers in small colleges should put on the whole armor of the profession in order to withstand the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune. Just this year, I was in touch with the following situation: One of my friends in a small college jumped to an associate professorship at \$6900.00. He is co-author of a new book in our field. The hiring institution told me that it was largely because he was now an author that he got the job. The \$6900 represented an increase of \$1300 over his old salary. In other words, research and publication make good job insurance.

"I wish there were some great orator who could go about and make men drunk with this spirit of self-sacrifice. I wish there were some man whose tongue might every day carry abroad the golden accents of that creative age in which we were born a nation; accents which would ring like tones of reassurance around the whole circle of the globe, so that America might again have the distinction of showing men the way, the certain way, of achievement and of confident hope."

-Woodrow Wilson, speaking on the 100th anniversary of the birth of Robert E. Lee.

How To Teach Speech in the Schools

By Clive Sansom

Director of Speech in the schools of Tasmania, and a poet of great power and international repute, Mr. Sansom outlines the problem of teaching Speech in the elementary and high schools—where it is most greatly needed.

OFTEN IN DEALING WITH SPEECH, the intangible counts for more than the tangible. Technical knowledge, space for acting, tape-recorders, books of material — all these are important, but they are far less important than the teacher's attitude of mind.

An "attitude" is hard to define, but it is this which determines the reaction of his pupils, the mood of his classroom, and his ultimate success in this work.

Speech is not a mechanical utterance which can be improved by administering a few exercises or reciting a few poems. It is, or should be, an expression of the speaker's mind and feelings and imagination — in fact, his whole personality. Therefore speech education is, to a large extent, the education and development of the child's personality through speech.

The teacher most likely to succeed is the one who is really interested in the thoughts of his pupils, and who values their opinions. He respects each child's personality and helps him to express it. He creates in his room an atmosphere in which fluent and constructive speech can have a natural growth.

Again "atmosphere" eludes definition, but on entering a classroom one is immediately aware of its presence or absence. With it comes a sense of friendly cooperation — a two-way courtesy between teacher and pupil, and between pupil and class — not a one-way courtesy that operates only from the pupil to the teacher.

Speech Situations

We can also help ourselves by considering the conditions outside the school which produce the most fluent and expressive speech, because similar conditions inside the classroom are likely to produce similar results. Natural speech will seldom grow in artificial situations.

The ideal speech situation occurs:

(a) when the speaker has something to say which genuinely interests him;

(b) when the listener genuinely wants to hear it. This is true in ordinary adult life; it is just as true in a classroom. It means:

(a) we must tap the child's present interests, and continually try to interest him in the new subjects we present.

By this is meant, not merely interesting his mind, but stimulating his imagination and feelings. Unbalanced brainwork is bound to result in flat and lifeless speech.

(b) we must create a class of willing listeners.We all know how difficult it is when we are trying

to converse with someone who is not interested in what we have to say. We become tongue-tied or express ourselves clumsily. How much more difficult it must be for children who are less experienced than we are, especially for those in the secondary school who lack self-confidence and have reached a critical stage in their emotional development.

Think, too, how nervous we are when asked to address a large audience, and how relieved we become when we find that the audience is neither bored nor antagonistic. We should remember this when asking a child to address an audience of forty or more in the classroom. It is impossible for him to do so confidently unless he is sure that they are interested in what he has to say and will receive it in a friendly way. Only the teacher can create this type of appreciative audience.

We must begin with ourselves, of course. The teacher should be the best listener in the room! We must be interested not so much in a recitation of facts as in the class's opinion on these facts. We must, as was said before, value the pupils' thoughts and respect their personalities, and by our example develop a similar interest and respect among the other members of the class.

There is another link with normal speech conditions: we do not usually, in adult life, tell a person something which he knows already, and probably knows far better than we do. We could not be very fluent, for instance, if we were invited to talk to Sir Winston Churchill on the subject of cigars. Yet that is exactly the type of situation we often invent in the Oral English lesson. We ask children to talk on a subject well-known to teacher and class, or to describe some object (e.g. the school building) with which everyone is familiar. No wonder the victim is often reluctant to speak and fails to project his voice. We would react in the same way in similar circumstances.

We should, wherever possible, remember our "ideal speech situation," where the speaker has something which he genuinely wants to say, and which the listener genuinely wants to hear. Then we shall choose a topic on which the speaker has some knowledge (his pet subject, an unusual experience, a place few others had visited), so that he knows he is not presenting stale news or second-hand information.

It will also help if, wherever practicable, the pupil speaks to the class. However willing a listener the teacher becomes, he remains something of the oracle. And

One Man's Opinion

(Continued from Page 12)

HOW BEAUTIFUL WAS CLEOPATRA?

Everyone who has passed the age of forty has noted that personal attractiveness (in men or women) is less a matter of good looks than of that complex of factors we call personality. In North African Prelude, (1949) by Galbraith Welch, we were arrested by the assertion that even Cleopatra's magic charm was more a matter of personality than of beauty. This is what the man said: "Cleopatra's fame — and it is undoubtedly greater than that of any other African — was a triumph of unaided personality." That adjective unaided stumped us for a while. We had always thought that nature and cosmetics, too, had had a part to play.

A search of Plutarch's Life of Mark Antony produced the following intriguing corroboration for Welch's judgment: "Her actual beauty, it is said, was not in itself so remarkable that none could be compared to her . . . but the contact of her presence was irresistible, the attraction of her person, joining with the charm of her conversation and the character that attended all she said and did was something bewitching. It was a pleasure merely to hear the sound of her voice, with which - like an instrument of many strings - she could pass from one language to another, so that there were few of the barbarian nations that she answered by an interpreter; to most of them she spoke herself, as to the Ethiopians, troglodytes (meaning those special cave dwellers who lived by the Red Sea), Hebrews, Arabians, Syrians, Medes, Persians, Parthians, and many others whose language she had learnt."

So there is Cleopatra, whose beauty of mind and speech surpassed her beauty of face and figure. It is a thought to conjure with.

EDITORIAL PROBLEMS

Don't be confused by the lack of a Book Review Section! We have dropped it — on the theories: (1) that new books on Speech are already regularly reviewed in half a dozen publications; and (2) that such reviews are in effect ads and that it really does no harm for publishers to accomplish the aim of bringing them to our readers' attention through the medium of our advertising pages. But we do not intend to abdicate our function as critics! On the contrary, we shall from time to time run specialized essays reviewing published materials (old as well as new) on such topics as discussion, persuasion, oral reading, etc. If you would like to undertake such an evaluative review, please write to the Editor with your suggestion.

Frankly, folks, finances are beginning to worry us! Remember what happened to Collier's? Costs of paper, printing, postage, and everything else associated with publishing a magazine have steadily gone up. Our problem might be solved if we should get a large number of schools to join the twenty or so that now require TODAY'S SPEECH as required reading in the public speaking course and order copies in bulk so they will have one for each student. Our regular subscription price is so low that even an increase in numbers of subscribers (welcome though that always is!) will not alone solve our problem. There always remains the chance that we may have to increase the subscription price. Meanwhile, relax, enjoy this issue — and then rush out and sign up two or three friends for annual subscriptions!

"If you were Editor . . ." what would you do with TODAY'S SPEECH? What would you like to find in it that it does not have? What would you leave out? What topics would you like to see covered in future articles? What do you think of our editorial preference for short, snappy, practical articles? Do you like to see us diverge occasionally into philosophic contempla-- as we do with Dr. Barbara's "Silence"? Would you like to see us run a regular department in which current speakers on the national and international scene are critically evaluated? Would you be helped by having us run a sample, now and then, of a really good speech - perhaps with some detailed analysis of what makes it effective? Would you like to see us dig down now and then into some really controversial questions - if only to see what kinds of letters we'd get from people who are mad? If so, what subjects would you suggest?

SPEECH IN INDUSTRY

In an article in the Journal of Communication, Winter, 1955, Professor Mason A. Hicks, of Purdue University, tells of a questionnaire which he sent out to one hundred leading corporations and businesses in the United States." Replies from seventy-eight of them contained suggestions as to types of work in "communications" which were considered of such value that additional work in these areas ought to be offered in university courses. Eleven such recommendations were made. The three most often mentioned were: "human relations and 'getting along with people'"; "oral communication"; and "oral and written communication." Fifty-four of the companies indicated that they offer specific Speech instruction in their Training Programs for employees. Courses offered include: public speaking (34), discussion (29), conference and committee participation and leadership (46), argumentation (5), and persuasion (15).

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By VIRGIL A. ANDERSON, Stanford University

1953 348 pages

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Oral Communication Needs in Industry

By George F. Henderson

Director of personnel and training for the Shawinigan Resins Corp., Springfield, Mass., Mr. Henderson testifies to the need for more speech training in industry.

TODAY, AUGUST 29, 1957, approximately 66 million people comprise the American working force. Say that these people talked only four out of every twenty-four hours. You'll agree that four hours of talking per day is a conservative estimate. Now the average rate of speaking in America is somewhere around 150 words per minute. Imagine any working individual talking four hours a day at 150 words per minute. That rate equals 32,000 words per day per individual or as many words spoken in one day as you will find in half a full length novel — then multiply 32,000 words per day by the 66 million people working in industry and the result is — astronomical. Isn't that a lot of "yakking"?

Nevertheless, most of this oral communication is still unguided; or, is not properly channeled to aid a company's efficiency. Think how wonderful will be the productivity of that company which learns to use its oral communications efficiently. Yet four basic barriers obstruct oral communications in American industry today. These four barriers or needs must be overcome. I have simply classified them under three headings: (1) To sell top management that oral communication needs exist, (2) To have something to sell top management to meet these needs, and (3) To analyze the speech needs in industry.

Taking these needs in their order of importance, let's examine the obvious need of selling top management. Today, management is mostly interested in the technical needs of the company and its employees. Thousands of dollars are spent on graduate assistantships, college fellowships and scholarships and in underwriting employees who desire to take further courses to improve their technical knowledge of the company's products. Millions of dollars are made available to universities and colleges to aid their research programs which in turn will assist companies. Yet little is spent in identifying and removing oral communications problems. Management for a long time has been generally blind to oral needs. Speech, like eating and drinking, is supposed to come naturally since little if any speaking techniques are taught at all. Speech techniques are incidental to courses designed to improve human relationships and to strengthen overall public relations. Two speaking programs I attended recently illustrate my point of how little attention has been given to public speaking by management.

The first program was arranged by a local industrial organization. I will try not to damage reputations so

will keep the individuals anonymous. The guest speaker had been advertised as an outstanding industrial figure in his specific field. Also advertised was the fact that he would address the local group on some of the latest developments in his advanced technological specialty. The program and advertising were so attractive that at least two thousand management personnel from area companies attended the talk. All began well. Introductions were safely out of the way and the main speaker began his talk to a very interested audience. Then chaos! First the microphone developed a high pitched whine, occurring often enough to be annoying to both speaker and audience. Ignoring this, the speaker continued while the host made valiant efforts to adjust sound and volume. Then the slides submitted by the speaker were not the proper ones he meant to bring to illustrate his talk. However, he proceeded. A hastily recruited projectionist did not coordinate well with the speaker on the timing of the slides. Occasionally, a slide was upside down. Meanwhile, the microphone continued to be a source of annoyance to speaker and audience. The situation grew worse. The speaker tried valiantly to continue without the microphone. Unfortunately, he was unable to project his voice beyond the first ten rows of seats. The talk was brought to a hasty and abject conclusion one half hour after it had begun and at least a half hour before it was scheduled to conclude. The speaker apologized again and again profusely and the audience grew more embarrassed the more he apologized. The entire audience situation had deteriorated from a pleasantly agreeable and anticipatory audience to an embarrassed and uncomfortable group of people who hastily crowded the refreshment table rather than ask questions of the speaker.

Would a little training in handling visual aids have helped this man? Would some speech training have prevented this comedy of errors?

A second situation again illustrates how some top management men have risen to their pre-eminence despite lack of speaking ability. Training in types of occasional speaking would have saved this evening.

I was one of a group of several thousand people who had gathered in a large auditorium to pay tribute to one of our city's most deserving fathers. State and nationally known personalities one by one ascended the rostrum and piled accolade on accolade in their summary of this individual's contribution to the community and to mankind in general. The program's climax

was reached when a top state official made a speech of presentation and presented a token gift — a quite expensive gift, I might add. The stage was set, the audience waited with bated breath. The guest of honor was about to speak. He would reply to the presentation and to all these famous people who had come to pay him tribute. What a letdown! The guest of honor shuffled from one foot to the other, smiled fleetingly, mumbled something about 'thank you' and hustled stumblingly back to his seat. The whole program had ended. All the buildup was wasted. Everyone felt uncomfortable and went home as fast as possible. The newspapers had a difficult time next morning constructing a speech made by the guest of honor.

These two situations I have just mentioned are similar to many where you, too, must have died inside in your embarrassment for the speaker. If only you or some speech teacher had been able to help that individual. Public speaking seems so easy and yet so few have made any sacrifice to acquire the skill. Remember top management still feels that speaking, like eating and drinking, comes naturally.

True some of our major corporations are now making studied efforts to establish in-plant speaking courses— especially conference leadership courses to meet some of the recognized oral needs. Conference leadership, role playing, case incident processes and brainstorming sessions are all frosting on the cake. They are part B of any good speaking program. Individual public speaking should be part A, yet industry prefers part B.

Suppose you did receive grudging permission to install a speaking course in a company. That course will not be successful unless from the president to front line foremen everyone has successfully completed it. Front line supervisors or foremen are the individuals who daily instruct workers on the job; who interpret company policies to workers and who handle union grievances every day. There's a psychological intangible about having the high ranking officers of a company take the same course as middle management and front line management personnel. The latter feel if a course is good enough for them to take, then their bosses should take it, too. Nevertheless, the bosses do not share this point of view and frequently feel that everyone else except them needs the training. Yet they are the very people who probably do most of the talking for the company on the radio, on television, at stockholders' meetings, and on various civic, social and educational programs where the company needs its best public-relations foot forward. An advocate of an effective speaking program will not succeed no matter how useful that program is unless he has the active cooperation and the very active participation of the top management in the company.

Awareness of a need for public speaking for businessmen may be coming. The July, 1957, issue of *Dun's Review of Modern Business* contains an article about the presidents of the top 110 companies in American

business — companies like General Motors, Esso of New Jersey, General Electric, U. S. Steel, DuPont. The article explains the problems besetting these modern tycoons and how they meet their problems. Near the end of the article, the author inserts a section in which the presidents list their top needs. Ranked fifth of all their needs — which included items like need to delegate more, and patience — was a need they all admittd. That was the need to improve their speaking ability.

Probably as great a need as selling top management is the need to have something to sell. Now I am going to tread on the toes of some old-fashioned Speech teachers. A formal Speech course full of theory and clinical practices is completely out. People in industry are busy making or selling their company's products. They have little time to spend on developing pearshaped tones, diaphragmatic breathing, practicing voice exercises, or reading speech books. All the speech theory in the world is going to be impractical if they do not have the opportunity to speak and speak a lot. The kind of speaking course these people want is one in which each member of the group has the opportunity to speak at least once in each training session. Believe me, if any of you ever teaches such a course, you will discover that these people will come to you better motivated than any group you have taught in the past. They want to succeed. They are sincere; they are earnest. They will work hard. Whether the motivation is supplied by the boss's "suggestion" that they attend the course, or by their own mature recognition of the value of speech, is irrelevant. The fact remains - they want to speak; they want to speak frequently and they want straightforward, even blunt, criticism. In short, they want to improve.

Perhaps you have established standards which you require of your speech students. So did I - once! However, without compromising too much, you, like I, can lower your goals just a little. Build confidence in these earnest students. Start with a beginner's course, only never label it as such; then have an intermediate course; and, finally, an advanced or polishing course. Learn to accept little successes. Obviously, it's better to settle for modest gains than to have grandiose failures. You'll discover that eventually these hard working businessmen are quick to learn and will reach almost every standard for effective speaking that you ever set. The AMA Effective Speech Clinic substantiated this. Harold Zelko and I participated with several other college speech instructors last November and all of us were surprised and pleased with results of this three-day program.

The third step is to analyze what are the oral communication needs in industry. Broadly speaking they are twofold: group needs, and man-to-man relationships. Group needs include directing or participating in meetings; teaching or attending classroom type programs, conference leading or participating, and finally public speaking. Individuals in industry today are hired according to their intelligence, experience, work habits, and ability to get along with other employees. Ability to get along with others implies that the individual is cooperative and has some skill in directing the efforts of other people. Line management is required to be especially skillful in this area. Group situations, therefore, require an individual to inform, instruct, persuade and convince people in groups. Also, the individual is required to contribute his share of information when he is not directing and only participating in the various group situations which occur in industry. To date, most of the oral training that exists in industry has been concentrated in this area of group dynamics. The individual who must stand alone on a platform and teach, instruct, or inform the group, whether addressing an audience outside the company or his colleagues in the plant, finds that he lacks the ability to say what he wants to say and to think on his feet. Somehow training has been insufficient in this area. The individual feels quite embarrassed and lost. Public speaking is a big need in group dynamics.

Man-to-man situations requiring courteous and efficient telephone techniques, interviews (such as employment, counselling and exit), and individual conferences are the most common types. Much has been done in the area of interviewing. Special training is offered by organizations like the Psychological Corpo-

ration in New York. However, only a handful of specialists such as personnel interviewers and a few department heads generally have training in interviewing. Much has been written about interviewing; however, here again practice in developing the skill is of paramount importance, not reading about it.

Another area requiring attention is the necessity to eliminate technical jargon in both group and man-toman situations. Possibly the need here is not a study of semantics by management trainees but rather to make individuals aware that certain terms all too common in company usage may be confusing or completely unknown to the layman. Even terms in common use within departments can be misunderstood by members of other departments. Perhaps what is required is the old-fashioned technique used by debaters - that of defining your terms. Nothing is more frustrating than to have a company representative address a local community organization to explain the company position in the community, its products, etc., and to have that individual lack rapport with the audience because he assumes that the audience understands the jargon of his trade. Nevertheless, this use of "slanguage" is very prevalent. I personally have seen it used more at socalled informational meetings than anywhere else and realize that our technical people again and again are talking completely over the heads of their audiences. The informational meetings miss their targets.

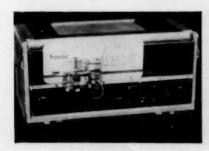
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The Technical Speaker and the General Audience-

Three Steps to Success

By Francis E. X. Dance

A teacher of adult classes in Chicago, Mr. Dance draws upon practical experience to present techniques that really work.

You, a technical man, have been asked to deliver a speech to a general audience. In what you now consider a moment of complete mental collapse — you consented. After the first quick chill of apprehension passes you ask yourself, "How can I make a speech on current research in transbronchial catheterization interesting to the local committeemen of the United Givers Fund?" or "What does the Lions Club care about social stratification in Middletown?"

Well, I've listened to over five hundred highly technical speeches in the last two years and from this experience I've been able to crystallize the following three suggestions for the technical speaker addressing a general audience.

1. Deal with the material you know best!

2. Organize carefully!

3. Dramatize!

There it is, it's as easy as one, two, three. Just take your time, follow the three suggestions and look forward to an enjoyable experience. Now let's look at the rules more closely.

1. Deal with the material you know best!

You can justifiably presume that there is a certain amount of interest in your subject on the part of your audience. You have been asked to address them on this particular topic and they are expecting to hear an acknowledged authority speak to them concerning his specialty. Don't disappoint them. Stick to your field.

Remember, too, that you are talking to adults. Many of them widely read and intelligent people. All of them sensitive enough to resent being talked down to. Probably there has been preliminary conversation about you and your topics. So keep your talk on an adult level, don't underestimate your audience. True, it would be unwise to bombard them with highly technical terminology — but it would also be a mistake to try to put your technical knowledge wholly into layman's language. Perhaps a familiar story will illustrate the point.

A tale is told of a western preacher who was assigned a parish on the eastern seaboard. Many of his parishoners were sailors, and the preacher decided to put his sermon on "Grace" into words familiar to his seafaring congregation. The sermon was something to hear. Grace was served-up on the mizzenmast and Satan lived in the scuppers. After the service the opinion of the auditors was summed up by an articulate tar who said, "The Reverend seems to be a good enough fellow, but there's

two things he don't know nothing about. One's the sea, and the other's grace!"

If you are worried about vocabulary try the technique of stating something in technical terms and then paraphrasing it in simple sentences. You'll find that your audience catches on quickly.

2. Organize carefully!

You can save yourself a great deal of heartache just by being realistic. After all, this isn't a group of experts you are speaking to. They're not interested in all the little details. They are more likely interested in the broad picture. So don't bite off more than *they* can chew. We human beings can't absorb too many new ideas at one time. Usually just one, two, or three at a sitting. Therefore spend some time deciding on exactly what you want your audience to know when you have finished your speech. Try putting this purpose into a simple declarative sentence. When that's done take a clean piece of paper and at the very top write that one simple declarative sentence.

Everything else that you write on that paper should serve only to aid you in the realization of your specific purpose (that simple declarative sentence.) In listing your main points you can proceed from the familiar to the unfamiliar, from the simple to the complex, or from the remote past to the present. Just decide on a pattern and follow it. When dealing with material that you consider very dry and technical, such as an experiment, it might help to recall the adventure of the experiment when first tried; the enthusiasm in setting it up to test your hypothesis; the very real disappointment if it failed; and the exhilaration if it succeeded. These emotions were quite real to you at the time — try to make them real to your audience now. In this fashion you can organize your speech into a climactic pattern.

3. Dramatize!

By dramatization I mean using devices that will help make your material meaningful to this particular audience. Your introduction and your conclusion provide excellent opportunities for dramatization. In your introduction you can explain to your audience how your subject affects them, their pocketbooks, their children, their food supply, their life span, their anything! Again, in your conclusion, you can summarize your main points in terms of your audience's everyday wants and needs.

Remember that the road to hell is paved with ab-

stractions, so be concrete. Don't tell them that smoking will shorten their life. Tell them that statistics indicate that the average life span of a lifetime heavy cigarette smoker is 8 years and 3 months shorter than the life span of a non-smoker. Be specific!

No one likes to feel left out, but often an audience does feel left out when the speaker addresses his remarks to his manuscript, or to a window, or to his shoes, instead of to his audience. Make sure that you rehearse your speech often enough so that you can remember the main points while looking at your audience instead of at your notes. Try to maintain this audience contact throughout.

Take advantage of audio-visual aids. One of the most convenient visual aids is your own body. Don't be afraid to smile, frown, or sneer — if the material calls for it. Use your hands to show size, direction, and capacity. Use your whole body to express fatigue, joy, excitement. If a slide will help, use it. Almost any sound in existence is preserved in wax. The heartbeat of a whale, the breathing of a frog. Use all of these audio-visual aids to help you paint a vivid auditory and visual picture for your audience.

These three rules can become second nature only through practice. Never neglect an opportunity to speak; you can't get anything but better. And at each opportunity make sure that you (1) Deal with the material you know best; (2) Organize carefully; and (3) Dramatize.



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FANATICISM: A Practical Critique

By Philip Schug

From San Antonio, Texas, where "Remember the Alamo" is more than a phrase, Mr. Schug (Minister of the First Unitarian Church) sends a warning about good men who are not only on fire but are also consumed by their message.

Last SUMMER I was reading a provocative and stimulating book by Herbert J. Muller, The Uses of The Past, when I came across a sentence that stopped me: "Men filled with 'the Spirit' can never be trusted."

As occasionally happens with a thought, this one rang bells. If I had pulled a lever on a slot machine knowing that I was going to get four bars or bells I could not have been less surprised as there rolled into memory's view the images of colleagues and acquaintances who are forever crusading for one or another cause. One thing that they had in common was that not one of them could ever be trusted. Each one of them would sell out his friends and family, if it seemed necessary, in the interests of a cause.

Such people are quite properly known as fanatics, after the Latin word "fanaticus," which means to be

inspired by divinity.

It is my purpose to look into the nature of fanatics so that we may more adequately understand them and ourselves. That our thought may be ordered, let me present the subject under the direction of three guiding questions: "How does one identify fanatics?" "What function does a fanatic perform?" and "How does one evaluate the services of fanatics?"

1

Let us turn first to the question of "How does one identify fanatics?"

An easy rule of thumb is to take some well known person who is widely known as a fanatic as your standard against which to judge the qualities of people you suspect of falling into this category. Outside of some devoted followers of Hitler there would be almost universal agreement that he could be used as a typical example. The same would be true of John Brown, Carry Nation, Anthony Comstock, Joseph McCarthy and Billy Graham. I need not labor the similarities of these spirit-filled people. You will easily recognize them. You will also see similarities between them and some of your acquaintances.

As is true with any simple rule, this one has its limitations: specifically, its lack of exactness, and its failure to overcome subjective blind spots. More rigorous efforts to identify the qualities that define fanaticism, and more objective evaluations of personalities, place some people who are almost universally revered in our culture in this category. For example, Saul of Tarsus, or

the Apostle Paul, fits a more rigorous evaluation very beautifully, though the thought sends a shudder down the spines of many people. This is even more true when one works through the gospels and finds many characteristics in the personality of Jesus of Nazareth that must be labeled as fanatical. Such conclusions force us to recognize the limitations of personal preference in the selection of examples. They also suggest that there may be something good about fanaticism. More of that later: Let us now try to be more exact.

One outstanding characteristic of fanaticism is a flight from personal freedom. We observe this in revolutionary movements even if they use the idea of freedom as an incentive or goal. Robespierre, the French revolutionary, identified his revolutionary government as "the despotism of liberty against tyranny." This is interesting coming from him, but it is not out of accord with the Marxian understanding of the dictator-

ship of the proletariat.

A second characteristic of fanaticism is a fierce rejection of both the past and the present. Rejection of the past, rejection of the present, a belittling of all accomplishments and all the things that are manifestly good, and in stages of improvement, is the clear-cut line of the fanatic in whatever field he is operating. You would never know that there were improvements of lasting significance during the past centuries or decades in race relations, in business standards, in governmental standards, in religious practices, or in any other field to listen to the fanatic. Not only have all sinned and fallen short of the glory of God, but all are lost in the depths of sin unless they accept the plan of salvation which the fanatic is peddling. He rejects everything except the future glory to be gained through his plan.

A third characteristic of fanaticism is a certainty regarding the answers to all the ills to which man is heir. The fanatic is the Lord's anointed. He is truly filled with the spirit. He sees "clearly" where others see but through a glass darkly. The fanatic Communist thumps Das Kapital. In Marxist theory he must always be right. The fanatic Nazi thumped Mein Kampf. He and Der Fuhrer had the answers for the next one-thousand years. — Fortunately, we can speak in the past tense of that one — but there will always be others.

A fourth characteristic of fanaticism is that it is utterly lost without a cause. The constant cry of the fanatic, from deep within his soul, is "Give me a horse to ride." It goes without saying that the fanatic is convinced of the monolithic and eternal nature of the cause to which he is currently devoted, but should it drop dead beneath him, or should he, for any reason, abandon it, he will seek another. His passionate attachment to his cause is not derived from his moral judgment regarding the nature of his cause and not from his reason regarding its necessity, but from the deep-seated necessity of a lost soul to belong, to lose himself in an attachment. He cannot be convinced, but he can be converted; and he will swing wildly from cause to cause in his extremity.

11

These are not the only characteristics of fanaticism, but they do help us to identify the fanatic in a way that we cannot by simple comparison with some agreed upon model. And, in a sense, they help us to understand the fanatic. Let us turn to the second guiding question, "What social function does a fanatic perform?"

The answer that many of us are wont to give is that the fanatic fills no role but that of a troublemaker, but such an answer stems more from our irritation with him than from a considered judgment regarding his place in our society. There is an old saying that it takes two to make a quarrel. In this context it is a vast understatement. The spiritually sensitive are always aware of injustices in any complex human society. And where there are social problems and literate people there emerge sharp intellects with verbal artistry to identify those problems and create uneasiness among those who can read, hear and understand. If those in control do not enfranchise, heap honors and rewards upon those sharp intellects and verbal artisans - as is currently done in the Soviet Union, thus pulling their stingers and destroying their usefulness to create dissention conditions will ripen to the point where a leader of the disenfranchised will arise. People will look about them and say, "Lo, are you he who has been promised? Are you he who has been sent to save us?"

It is at this point that the fanatic rises to answer the call. He drapes the mantle of his god about him, and he appears in the role of the savior. The fanatic, thus, does serve a vital role in social revolution when the time is ripe. There is no denying his genius in correctly judging the temper of the times — if he is successful — but it is also not to be denied that thousands of fanatics cry alone in the wilderness and die without leaving their marks upon their times because they have not bothered to judge the temper of the times or have been wrong in their judgments.

Unfortunately for the fanatic, events are usually swift moving and violent during his leadership. He shoots to prominence as a comet that streaks across the sky to illuminate the heavens. Praise and glory are heaped upon him, changes are made, the lines of social power are shaken to their foundations, and with every change he waxes brighter and more fiery, demanding more and more in the way of sacrifice and revolution. There

is no satisfying the fanatic because he is basically and completely dissatisfied with himself. But the people weary, or are beaten in war, or he is betrayed from within the group of his followers, or he dies; and others take over the leadership of the disturbed masses.

Those who take over are usually practical men of action who have a different kind of genius. They know how to mold going concerns out of seething masses of people. They are the career rulers — a different set from those who have recently lost power, but very much like them in temperament and abilities. They are administrators. They build states and churches and institutions. They laud the hopes and visions of the fanatic, whose kingdom is not of the present but always of the future, but they make the most of the present. They are not fanatics.

Hitler saw this clearly, and he warned in Mein Kampf that when a revolutionary movement is invaded by those who want to make the most of the present the revolutionary movement is done for, as most surely it is. Every Christ has his followers and successors who mouth his phrases and laud his name but deny his substance and essence. These followers, like the fanatic, are fallible. Along with the good they do they sow the seeds of future revolution.

It is easily seen, then, that the fanatic does have a vital function in social revolutions. He is the uncompromising catalyst who clarifies the vision, intensifies dissatisfaction with the past and present, and points to an impossibly perfect new heaven and new earth which has motivating power sufficient to move people to action. Under the influences of a fanatic, people will destroy the present and gladly sacrifice their lives for things which are not but which they hope are yet to be. Because of his function it is best that the fanatic does not outlive his usefulness.

III

Let us now turn to the last guiding question, "How does one evaluate the services of fanatics?"

The most constructive value that I would attribute to fanatics is that of social barometers for steadier and more conservative people. If we grant that a fanatic will not gain prominence unless social conditions are right for his emergence, the rise of a fanatic with a substantial following ought to be a signal to those in charge of the smooth operation of things that substantial changes are needed. This does not suggest that the changes indicated by the fanatic are in order. To me it would have been disastrous if we had followed the lead of Senator McCarthy and adopted the principles for which he crusaded; but, on the other hand, a mild tightening of security seemed to cut the ground from under him. The same may be said for the crack-pot schemes of Dr. Townsend of old age security fame. The changes that were made were sufficient to reduce the pressures which gave him a platform.

If, then, we recognize social change as a constant, and a necessity, but with different velocities at different

times, we admit a principle of perpetual revolution. Instead of allowing dissatisfied social groups to build up heads of steam sufficient to blow the government or institution apart, we use fanatics with substantial followings to show the direction in which the revolution must next roll. This is essentially the social philosophy of the liberal, who wants changes but who has no intention of throwing away the values of the present for wild-eyed schemes that promise only future values.

Let me close by saying that every one of us probably has something of the fanatic in his make-up from time to time. When we are most thoroughly dissatisfied with ourselves we are likely to feel the urge to climb aboard the wild-eyed schemes that roll by. Occasionally we do take a ride, but usually we do not last long as passengers or leaders of these movements. Our most abiding urge is to build on the past and enjoy the present. We soon learn that fanatics will sell out everything and everybody for a visionary future. They cannot be trusted to hold sacred the values of personality that we revere. Fanaticism is not for us, though if we are wise we shall learn how to use it.

Assessing the Future in Educational Television

By Bernarr Cooper

Dr. Cooper (Ph.D., Stanford) is Director of Television and Radio for the University of New Mexico.

How can television best serve the educational needs for the future? This lies in the realm of trying to gaze into a crystal ball and foresee what the future needs of the educated public would and should be. In order to be able to do this, let us first consider what are the potentials and limitations of the medium as we know it, now.

Certainly, much has been said and written about the ability of the television medium to reach vast numbers of people, simultaneously, with a teaching program. If we look carefully at the teaching program of today and examine it in its many aspects, what do we find? In many parts of our nation we find that educators are making honest efforts in an age when there is increasing shortage of teachers. One out of every three young persons between the ages of eighteen and twenty is now attending some university or college. Increasing numbers of students must be prepared to face their responsibilities as community citizens in a democracy in which life becomes ever more complicated.

What, then, are the potentials and the limitations of the television medium? First, we find that the medium offers certain potentials other than that of simply communicating with large numbers of students. Certainly, no one will argue with the ability of the medium to present minute detail even in a group-viewing situation so that every member of a group can see the detail clearly and as it is desired it should be seen by the instructor at work. Minute detail, then, expanded because of the potential of the television lens, so that the

student may examine at close quarters that which even the human eye often may miss, is one of the great potentials of the medium. True, this is only a mechanistic potential and one which probably has less importance than some of the other things we will discover.

But at the same time that the medium has the potential to present minute detail, it also has the limiting factor of confining the viewer or the student to the detail being presented. In a natural situation, the human eye is free to select whichever detail it wishes to comprehend. Or it may range over a wide variety of detail, simultaneously — provided, of course, that the object is within the viewing plane of the particular individual's eye.

Second, among the important things which we must recognize is the great limitation placed on the medium by the educational telecast planner. Are our presentations truly educational in scope? Do we plan in depth the broad educational needs for the individual in our complex world? We find, for example, that important experiments are being carried on at the elementary level. Certainly no one will deny the great advances being made at Hagerstown, Maryland, in meeting a very necessary need — that of supplying a sufficiently broad educational scope to numbers of students who might otherwise not be receiving a necessary educational fare because of the limitation of available teachers. In Chicago, at the junior college level, great effort is being made to bring to the viewer confined to the

home many educational subject areas which the individual might not otherwise be able to pursue.

We find at the secondary level, certain interesting experiments - for example, in Pittsburgh the teaching of physics at the high school level. Thus, we find that for the most part the offerings of educational television are greatly compartmentalized, and that these offerings are, for want of a better term, horizontal, rather than offerings in depth. Are we to continue to guard in close areas our so-called educational prerogatives or have we simply not yet caught up with the potential of the medium?

An enlightened citizenry in an increasingly involved age should perhaps be entitled to a planned educational program from the pre-school level through the adult educational level, and on to the higher educational level in many subject areas. Our educational system has made us the victims of specialists and compartmentalization. There is little attempt to plan in depth interrelationships between areas of learning. Often at the college level we produce college trained people who are only that - college trained - but in the true sense of the meaning are not educated, or are, at best, poorly educated. There are many noble experiments in attempting to relate areas of learning to each other through a classification known as the "humanities". The student is encouraged to investigate the interrelationship of bodies of knowledge, one with the others. However, in our scientific age, the pursuit of the "humanities" does not always equate with the idea of adequate professional preparation, in the student's mind.

We live in a highly complicated society. Indeed, it has become increasingly complicated in democracies where great advances are made. Many of these advances are made in scientific areas, and these scientific achievements in turn influence us in every walk of life

and at every moment of our lives.

Thus, it becomes necessary that we understand the interrelationships and possible daily application of all areas of knowledge. Perhaps we must first recognize that we must get away from the idea that television can teach only rote content subject matter. True, rote content subject matter is necessary to a basic education. But we must stimulate to thought as well as impart basic information. Perhaps our educational system is weak in that we have not yet removed ourselves from the idea that the sole goal of education is to impart information.

There are some noteworthy efforts in the direction of stimulating to thought — the goal of true education. These efforts we may note in some of the program offerings which are made available through the Educational Television and Radio Center at Ann Arbor; some of the live offerings which are telecast at WGBH-TV in Boston. But these are still isolated efforts contained only in one or two places where programs are emanated. We must recognize, therefore, that perhaps we are a little over-zealous and a little over-guilty in making the student only a receptacle for all information. Perhaps, we must make the closer comment that everything taught is not necessarily education. More and more as the educational television medium develops we must become concerned with the techniques of inspiring to thought via a medium which has been accused of being purely mechanistic.

Another difference that we must note between the classroom and the television medium is that in the classroom the teacher often prepares and teaches alone. That is, he or she bears the complete responsibility not only for the entire content and method in which a particular area or subject is presented, but he or she also teaches alone. The teacher in television is surrounded by gifted people - technicians, production personnel people with creative teaching ideas. The teacher who has the extraordinary experience of teaching in television — the teacher who is truly an educator capable of communicating not only to the viewer-student but who is also capable of communicating ideas and stimulating the studio staff with which he works - this is the educator who soon realizes that teaching via television can be an interesting, an exciting, and even at times an ennobling experience. The staff with which he works is not an uneducated group. They may be uninformed in certain rote content areas but the studio staff is made up of people who are often dedicated to the medium and who in turn can stimulate the teacher to discover new methods for disseminating knowledge. Teamwork, rather than isolated individual effort, then, is necessarily the keynote of every good teaching telecast.

The television medium is limited, now, in its own peculiar way, just as the classroom presents limitations for the teacher. Over many centuries of using the classroom as a basis of home operation, the teachers have discovered its inadequacy. For example, it was early found, in the teaching of certain scientific subject areas, that the classroom alone could not be used - that it had to be expanded. Many types of expansion took place. In certain scientific subject areas this led to the institution of such things as laboratory sessions - sessions in which the student could learn, smell, feel, and experiment with the objective theory which had been presented to him in the lecture classes.

Similarily, television and its studios can be expanded. It may seem at times that we cannot go beyond the studio but this is not altogether true. Just as we have learned to go beyond the classroom in the use of film, we can also go beyond the immediacy of a given studio situation to still another studio situation, to an outdoor situation, to any number of situations which may be necessary to stimulate the student to further efforts in learning. Nevertheless, the classroom teacher has never been able to rid himself of the containment of four walls in a classroom situation. Therefore, the size of the class - the number of students who can participate in a learning experience in the classroom - must forever be limited to the size of the given classroom. It is true that in television the walls of the studio, too, may

limit things; however, if we were to look around at the potential of reaching a greater student body size, a greater class size, certainly television presents this.

The teaching telecast goes beyond the studio. It reaches to the isolated group separated many miles from a teacher. It may reach the isolated individual and bring to him a superior kind of instruction which without television he might never be able to attain. Much criticism has been made of the separation of student from teacher in the televising situation. Perhaps under certain conditions, this is a valid criticism. Some studies have found that a student group does not necessarily find that physical separation from the teacher is a limiting factor. This same research indicates that the student is not always constrained when he is unable to ask questions or enter into a group discussion situation. The gifted teacher with many years of classroom teaching experience in his subject area is able to anticipate the usual questions that are asked, and these are frequently clarified quickly, concisely, and thoroughly in the body of the lecture or in the teaching telecast presentation.

But in the final analysis we return again to the question: "What shall we do with this medium for all citizenry, of all ages, whatever their previous learning experience?" Apparently, we must first decide what shall truly be the goal of *all* education, regardless of level. If we are to recognize that man must be an integrated

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human being, widely learned in many subject-content areas, capable of taking such basic learning and advancing it to a point of positive thought for greater good for himself, his immediate family, or his community situation — if this is to be the goal of education, then perhaps we must recognize that more planning in depth must take place in educational telecasting.

Planning the educational future of a democracy must help the individual to a realization of the interrelationship of all areas of knowledge. Certain satisfactions must be attained in life. Perhaps life moves too fast to attain them all, but each individual has a right to a place in his own small world. But his own small world is no longer as small as it was twenty-five, fifty, a hundred years ago. Man, by his very achievements, has enlarged the area of necessary knowledge. What is needed today on an ordinary day-to-day living basis, in order to be able to attain some of the desirable goals in life, is much more than the knowledge necessary fifty years ago.

Are we planning in depth? Is there a true relationship in what we plan in all educational areas between the offerings at the elementary, the secondary, and the higher education levels? Are we truly turning out well educated individuals, or only those who have been highly trained and are somewhat informed?

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by LEAH SHERMAN

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MAKING VISUALS AID

By John A. Davis

Mr. Davis, doctorate candidate in Speech at Penn State, took his M. A. in visual aids at the University of Iowa.

How Do I GET TO FOREST CITY?" I asked the man on the tractor. His answer led me verbally over a series of farm-to-market roads, past landmarks that were familiar to him, but not to me, and ultimately to a highway leading to my destination. After a half hour's drive I became convinced I'd missed a turn or landmark somewhere.

The boy by the side of the road was more helpful; he pointed in the general direction I should be heading. But it was not until I reached the service station that I received really adequate direction.

"You're here," the service man said, indicating a point on a map. "And here's Forest City, on number twenty." He drew a line indicating the path I would take, and gave me the map to keep as a guide. I reached Forest City without further incident.

The service man had utilized a device commonly found in teaching, and often in public speaking - the visual aid. Today's student is likely to gain a substantial part of his information through motion pictures, models, demonstrations, and the like. Even those of us whose instruction lacked such advantage can recall the teacher's diagraming of sentences on the blackboard or drawing of geometrical figures to help teach a concept. Many of us can remember a name better after we've seen it written. Fraternal and service organizations characteristically fashion emblems which may have special significance to the members and which allow outsiders to identify members by reference to the emblem. The red cross and the Salvation Army shield are familiar to most of us. Without pressing the point too far, even clothing may often be considered a kind of visual aid, giving cues to sex, occupation, age, and station of the wearer. With television, people in general have probably become more sensitive to visual presentation.

Visual Aids in Speech Situations

The function of audio-visual materials in public speaking is perhaps best appreciated by literal interpretation of their common label: visual aids. They aid the audience to better understand a process, a device, a principle, or a body of knowledge. Gray and Braden suggest that a visual aid is useful in clarifying what is too complex, too big, too small, too fast, too slow, too inaudible, too inaccessible, or too untimely to be satisfactorily explained verbally. A visual aid may amplify pictorially what is indescribable verbally. A visual dem-

onstration may prove a point, either directly or by analogy.

Audio-visual materials also serve the speaker as aids to general effectiveness of his speech. Banners and pictures serve to create a particular kind of atmosphere, and direct the attention and interest of the audience toward the speaker's platform. The visual aids the speaker uses provide him with a memory aid, and manipulating them may help him reduce his nervous tensions (provided all goes well).

Kinds of Visual Aids

"All right," says Mr. Prospective Speaker, "I'd like to use a visual aid in my speech. But how do I go about selecting one? What kinds should I use? How can I judge when I have the 'right' visual aid for the job?"

One might begin to answer such questions by pointing out that if a visual aid is to help the speaker clarify, amplify, or prove a point, it should be selected on the basis of how well it does just that. In other words, the criteria which the speaker uses in selecting all of his forms of support can well be applied to the visual aid: Does it support the point? Is it appropriate for the audience? for the speaker? the time limit? etc.

In his search for the "right" visual aid for the job, our prospective speaker will probably find himself faced with visual aids of two general types: 2-dimensional and 3-dimensional.

Most picturizations — photographs, drawing, charts, graphs, maps, etc. — are of the 2-dimensional type. Motion pictures, projected slides, and the like usually come under this category. Handouts, material to be passed out to the individuals in the audience, are also of the 2-dimensional variety in most cases.

Samples, models, mock-ups, and other actual objects are usually 3-dimensional in nature. People, animals, birds, and other live models come under the 3-D heading. The speaker himself is a visual aid of this variety.

(Unidimensional aids such as the phonograph and tape recorder are not, strictly speaking, *visual* aids, and the particular problems they present to the speaker will not be discussed here.)

Standards of Visual Aids

It is obvious that any visual aid the speaker selects or constructs will necessarily be judged according to more criteria than we have listed above. A visual aid must support the point it is supposed to support in a speech, and it must also meet certain standards as a visual aid.

For the majority of visual aids a simple guide may be adapted to aid in the selection or preparation, and the presentation of the material in a public speaking situation. This guide can be couched in three key words: visibility, simplicity, and coordination.

Visibility.

Susanne Langer, in her *Philosophy in a New Key*, describes the difference between language and symbolic phenomena as primarily one of form: language, which must be imparted by a series of spoken or written signs, is thus *discursive* in form, while pictures, music, sculpture, and similar symbolic phenomena, impart relationships at a glance, or *presentationally*.²

The primary function of a visual aid is to show presentationally material that is not well suited for discursive communication. Obviously, to successfully accomplish this it must be visible to the people who are supposed to see it. The speaker who is selecting a visual, or making his own, will thus need to consider the size and coloring of his material.

Any object in a picture or model which is of importance to the presentation should be large enough, and stand out in sufficient relief, to be discerned clearly by the people sitting furthest away from it. An automobile motor used as a visual aid for describing the operation of the sparkplug would be quite large, but the object of particular importance — the sparkplug — would probably be too small for most members of the audience to appreciate.

Similar qualifications apply to drawings, charts and graphs. Letters and figures must be big enough, lines bold enough, to be seen clearly by the listener most remote from the visual.

Contrast in coloring is of importance in this regard. A dark object against a dark background simply cannot be seen. Thus a speaker showing a model or visual in which it is important for the audience to discern a particular part will set the part off by making it of a color contrasting to its background, or, where this is not feasible, by setting a card, cloth, or other backdrop of suitable contrasting color behind the part to be watched.

The adaptation of these considerations to presentation of the visual aid during the speech is, of course, readily seen. The speaker will seek to place his visual where it may be most advantageously seen by all members of the audience. He may well select his clothing, and the platform dressing and lighting (if possible), to set off the visual to best advantage. He will so place himself that he does not come between his visual and any member of the audience.

Simplicity.

The speaker will do well to consider a practice of advertisers on television: keep it simple. Simplicity in a visual aid may be looked upon as nothing more than "common sense," where it is assumed that the purpose of a visual aid is to aid. A richness of detail may be desirable in blueprints or schematic diagrams for technicians, but for audiences too many details may draw attention away from what the speaker is talking about.

It is often desirable for a complex visual to be built up as the speaker progresses through it. An illustration of this technique is in the use of a visual outline of key points of the speech. The outline is made up in complete form, and each point is covered with a strip of paper, so that it is not visible to the audience. The speaker uncovers each point on the outline as he takes it up in his speech. He thus maintains and directs the attention and interest of his listeners. At the end of the speech, the entire outline is visible, enabling the audience to review the speech as the speaker summarizes in his closing remarks. Variations of this technique can be used in attaching labels to diagrams of mechanisms or processes, with a similar presentational result.

Because extraneous detail in a visual may have undesirable effects upon audiences, the speaker may find that commercially prepared visual aids are unsuitable for his purposes. The audience that has heard a speaker cover three or four out of a dozen listed points on a commercial visual aid may come away from the speech more frustrated then satisfied.

Where the speaker decides to produce or procure his own visual aid, it may be well to remember: keep it neat, uncluttered, and if it has parts which are supposed to move, be sure it works.

Coordination.

Coordination in a visual aid implies a unity of ordered and related parts. The visual aid which, as in the outline illustration, presents an intelligible whole at the end of its use, is likely to be a *real* aid to both speaker and audience.

Coordination in the *use* of a visual aid is the probable outcome of the speaker's careful preparation and rehearsal of his speech with the visual. He has mastered his material so that he uses it without having to direct all of his attention to it. As the writers of *Communicative Speech* suggest, he maintains an audience-centered presentation: he faces them, he shows them the visuals, he talks to them about what they are seeing.³

The speaker who takes this sort of approach to his speaking situation is well on the way toward making visuals aid.

Gray, Giles Wilkeson, and Braden, Waldo W., Public Speaking: Principles and Practice, (New York: Harper and Bros., 1951) p. 320.

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Further Considerations on

Unexpected Speech Situations

By Egbert S. Oliver

Presented by Dr. Oliver, Professor of English, Portland (Oregon) State College, as a reply to Dr. Runkel's article in the November issue, these comments also recall the excellent advice given by Dr. Schmidt in our September number.

T HE SUBJECT, How to Meet Unexpected Speech Situations, was presented in an article in the November issue of *Today's Speech* by Professor Howard Runkel. The issues raised there and the general approach suggested to speakers call for more detailed analysis and further reflection. This is no idle or theoretic matter, for everyone who speaks comes in contact with the unexpected situation. In fact, it could almost be laid down as a principle that the unexpected must be anticipated for every occasion.

I was once introduced to speak to a group on a serious subject. I had not said three words when a shrill child's voice filled the entire room asking, "Is that the door we go out?" The audience was convulsed with merriment and of course the entire opening effect of my talk was modified. Even after minutes had passed, we would have ripples of laughter run over the crowd. Here in a situation of this kind the speaker must learn—if he is to rise above the external factors—to roll with the punch and not be caught off balance. That is not always easy, but the event or circumstance can also be an ice-breaker, an audience-warming situation under which the speaker-audience contact can be deepened and enriched.

Mr. Runkel raises the question of poor programming, of crowded dockets which limit the time of the speaker or delay his appearance. I would not agree with the solution offered by Mr. Runkel for the instances he outlines.

Suppose one is invited to speak to an evening club meeting and then finds music, business, and — of all things — a high school debate on the program. After the evening meal the men all smoke, the room is stuffy, the audience is listless — and it is getting late: what should the speaker do? How is he to meet this difficult speech situation?

Let us acknowledge that the speaker has been invited as a guest, even as the principal guest. Also the other participators in the program are guests — the musicians, the debators, and any other speakers. But you are the principal guest, the so-called honored speak-

er, and your time to appear comes *last*, with smokefilled, humid atmosphere and listless guests. What are you to do? I would not agree that Mr. Runkel did the desirable thing in embarrassing the chairman and the program committee by leaving the hall before he was introduced.

Let us before commenting on desirable procedures look at a second situation which Mr. Runkel reported on as confronting him. It is the familiar occurrence of time running out. At a luncheon meeting he was introduced with four minutes to speak, having been told well ahead of time just when the meeting must close — and the chairman gonged him down. Mr. Runkel says that he addressed a few words to the chairman and the audience about the discourtesy of the situation before he sat down. I would be sure that no one was happy about the feelings left by either of these situations.

The instances of speech situations in which poor planning or poor timing has brought about a jamming up of events might be multiplied indefinitely. But the multiplied instances still leave unanswered the question of how a speaker may meet the situation — even how he may prepare ahead of time for such an unsought circumstance.

To begin with, let us lay down the proposition that this already difficult speaking occasion is no proper place for delivering a lecture on manners, further embarrassing the chairman or the program committee, or to "enlighten the group about its reasonable obligations toward invited guests." All of that belongs to a different occasion.

The audience is before the speaker — and they are not at fault. They — like the speaker — are swept up in the unexpected speech situation. The audience is the speaker's first consideration here. If in the evening occasion in which Mr. Runkel was to follow the high school debaters he had felt that the occasion made a speech by him undesirable, he could have suggested to the chairman as quietly and as tactfully as possible his judgment in the matter — leaving, of course, the de-

cision to the chairman. If the chairman agreed to cancelling the speech, Mr. Runkel could have waited until the debate was over, been introduced by the chairman, and in as genial a mood as possible have expressed his good will. He could have said, "I'll speak for you next year," or some such remark.

If the chairman wished him to speak, he could still in the moments at his command have changed his material to suit the changed occasion.

The point is, he could have made a friendly opening for changed procedures.

This matter of the four minutes at the luncheon meeting would seem to me to call for the same consideration by the speaker. The audience is in your hands for four minutes. If you have earlier warning of the time shrinkage — adjust: but at all events remain friendly with the audience. Do not blame them for what is not of their making. Then would it not be desirable to address any remarks concerning "discourtesy" — if you feel you must make any at all — in private to the chairman?

I once saw an excellent illustration of how to meet this predicament by Dr. Douglas Horton, now Dean of the Harvard Divinity School. He was scheduled to speak at the close of a long day of conference and meetings. He had spoken to the conference once before the occasion here mentioned. Two speakers were scheduled to deliver major addresses in the evening after a dinner program and also a worship service. Of course the program was unwisely planned; but everyone involved in the matter had nothing but the best of will and the best of intention. It was late and people were tired when Dr. Horton was introduced "to give his address."

He arose with his usual charm and poise. He looked at the audience in his friendliest manner. He said, "My address is 287 Fourth Avenue." He added a couple of sentences, saying that everyone was tired, and he could speak another year. Everyone was pleased. No one was embarrassed. The human situation was treated with charm and dignity. I may add that of course the program committee, without being told directly, realized their error.

The way to meet unexpected speech problems is to retain your poise as a speaker, to retain your appropriate attitude toward the audience, and do your best to fulfill your speech obligation. This calls for flexibility on the part of the speaker and, above all, a continuing fund of good will.

Mr. Runkel suggests that one approach with courtesy and adaptability every speech situation in which some "Act of God" has brought difficulty, having at hand "a readiness to accommodate, a light touch, above all the manifestation of good will — these ought to be the ingredients in a speaker's reaction to unexpected situations beyond the control of those present." I want to suggest the extension of that poise and courtesy to

every speech situation, even including incidents of faulty introduction.

Even though planning of a program has involved a human error, or even though a careless chairman permits time to escape, or even if the introduction involves wrong titles, mispronounced name, and other errors, the audience is there in the speech situation — and the audience deserves the best efforts of the speaker.

Whatever the speaker does to attract attention away from his talk and his main goal is a loss. Any remarks interposed which serve to separate him from the occasion instead of inserting him more easily and graciously into the occasion is lost and distracting effort. The equation still and always remains — even in the face of an unusual occurrence — the speaker-audience one, with all of its implications. The question of whether the offended speaker should speak of his displeasure to the chairman or the program committee is a matter for one's own conscience and personality to control. It is not the public speech situation and it should not be intruded into the attention of the audience.

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(Continued from Page 18)

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